

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS AMONG DEANS OF STUDENTS AT PUBLIC
RESEARCH UNIVERSITIES IN THE SOUTHEAST

By

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This study examined the leadership behaviors of deans of students at public research universities in the southeast using Bass and Avolio's Full Range of Leadership Model. A sample ($n = 96$) of student affairs professional staff members working within dean of students offices at 31 public research universities in the southeast completed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5x-Short) to examine the relationship between transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors of deans of students and the outcome variables of satisfaction with the leader, perception of leader effectiveness, and followers' willingness to exert extra effort.

SPSS and SAS statistical software programs were used to run multiple linear regression analyses on the data. Deans of students exhibited transformational leadership behaviors more frequently than they exhibited transactional behaviors, which they exhibited more frequently than laissez-faire behavior. The transformational behavior of idealized influence-attributed, the transactional leadership behavior of contingent reward,

and laissez-faire behavior were significant predictors at the $p < .05$ level for the outcome variable of leader effectiveness. The transformational behaviors of idealized influence-attributed and idealized influence-behavior, the transactional behavior of contingent reward, and laissez-faire behavior were significant predictors at the $p < .05$ level for the outcome variable of satisfaction with the leader. The transformational behaviors of idealized influence-attributed, idealized influence-behavior, and individual consideration, along with the transactional behavior of contingent reward and laissez-faire behavior, were significant predictors at the $p < .05$ level for the outcome variable of willingness to exert extra effort. Transformational leadership behaviors accounted for unique variance in professional staff members' ratings of the outcome variables above that accounted for by transactional and laissez-faire leadership. The findings support the theoretical prediction of the Full Range of Leadership model that leaders who are more transformational and less transactional are more effective as leaders and more satisfying to their followers. There was no significant difference in how male and female deans of students were rated overall by their professional staff members and there was no significant difference in the way male and female professional staff members rated their deans.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

The federal government and the states began showing an interest in distinguishing between public and private colleges soon after the ratification of the U.S. Constitution (Rudolph, 1990; Brubacher & Rudy, 1997). Several states established nondenominational institutions between 1782 and 1820, beginning with Georgia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Vermont establishing state-chartered and state-supported institutions before 1800 (Rudolph, 1990). The early enthusiasm for establishing state institutions of higher education developed from the public's need for more democratic and secular institutions that could be held accountable for fulfilling the needs and objectives of the state (Rudolph, 1990). These initiatives indicated that higher education was viewed as being essential to the public good and that state governments were concerned about religiously governed private colleges dictating the national educational agenda (Rudolph, 1990; Brubacher & Rudy, 1997).

This early push toward development of public higher education lost momentum in the aftermath of the famous U.S. Supreme Court case, *Trustees of Dartmouth College v. Woodward*, which gave privately incorporated colleges control over their own policies and activities (Rudolph, 1990). Private colleges were created throughout the United States after the *Dartmouth* decision and enjoyed unprecedented autonomy (Rudolph, 1990). Rudolph (1990) stated that the *Dartmouth* decision "discouraged the friends of strong state-supported and state-controlled institutions; . . . by encouraging [private]

college funding and by discouraging public support for higher education, [*Dartmouth*] probably helped to check the development of state universities for half a century” (p. 211).

While the attempts at establishing state institutions of higher education were premature in terms of public acceptance and ready implementation at the beginning of the 19th century, the last half of the 19th century was a time when the country’s industrialized society was facing increasingly complex problems and deficiencies that would eventually lead to the widespread development of public higher education (Rudolph, 1990; Brubacher & Rudy, 1997). There was an increasing need for highly trained professionals in areas such as engineering, agriculture, public health, forestry, and nursing, but the professional schools of the modern university did not exist (Bonnen, 1998). There was also a growing frustration with the perceived unresponsiveness of colleges, mostly private, that were providing a classical education and were unwilling to address society’s changing needs (Bonnen, 1998). At the same time, a fear arose that the “American dream” of unlimited opportunities was being threatened by industrialization and the growing economic inequality it was causing. The lack of access to the skills and practical education necessary for a better life was viewed as a serious threat to the survival of the middle class (Brubacher & Rudy, 1997; Bonnen, 1998).

Part of the response to these concerns was the land-grant idea, which was eventually expressed in the 1862 Morrill Land Grant Act and the second land-grant act of 1890 (Bonnen, 1998). The land-grant idea was to provide federal and state support for the development of institutions of higher education devoted to science and education in the service of society by (a) educating and training professionals for the increasingly

urban and industrial society; (b) providing broad access to education regardless of wealth or social status; and (c) working to improve the welfare and social status of the farmers and industrial workers (Bonnen, 1998).

The impact of the land-grant legislation was not felt immediately. At the beginning of the 20th century public higher education remained largely undeveloped (Thelin, 1996). However, this began to change after 1900 when state universities increasingly became a symbol of state pride. State legislators began recognizing that universities could be of service to the state; therefore, they started supporting them financially (Lucas, 1994; Thelin, 1996). Thelin (1996) observed that “applied research, a utilitarian and comprehensive curriculum, not to mention the public appeal of spectator sports and the availability of federal funds for such fields as agriculture and engineering led to the growth and maturation of the state university” (p. 12).

During the period between World War I and World War II, the promise of the Morrill Act began to be seen in the state universities of the West and Mid-West with enrollments climbing to between fifteen and twenty-five thousand at some institutions (Thelin, 1996). However, many of the current large state research universities were still relatively small during this period and their curricular offerings were limited. At the beginning of World War II, several state universities had enrollments of fewer than five thousand students and graduate and doctoral programs were limited (Thelin, 1996; Brubacher & Rudy, 1997).

After World War II, the convergence of the Servicemen’s Readjustment Act and the tremendous increase in government and foundation research grants available to universities provided the driving force behind the incredible expansion that took place in

higher education at every level (Rudolph, 1990; Brubacher & Rudy, 1997; Caple, 1998). The period of growth from 1945 to 1970 in enrollments, university influence in society, graduate and professional programs, and in construction of new state institutions has been called higher education's "golden age" and a time that ushered in the modern state research university (Thelin, 1996; Lucas, 1994; Rhodes, 2001). However, the 21st century state research university, as well as the society it serves, has changed profoundly from higher education's golden age.

The state university today as compared to 40 years ago is much larger, more complex, and offers a much wider range of opportunity for disciplinary, or interdisciplinary specialization (Keller, 1990; Altbach, 2001). Its faculty and student body are more characterized by involvement in graduate work, research, upper division and professional education (Balderston, 1995; Rhodes, 2001). Large state research universities have become national and international in their teaching, research, and some public service areas (Brubacher & Rudy, 1997; Rhodes, 2001). They serve as the foundation for the public college and university system that enrolls 78 percent of all students and 81 percent of undergraduate students (Neimark, 1999).

The modern state research university finds itself in what Altbach (2001) categorized as a "curious paradox" (p. 11). Along with its private counterpart, the state research university is part of a system of higher education that is considered the best in the world (Altbach, 2001). In writing about both the private and the public American university, Rhodes (2001) stated:

It has been the foundation of growing national economic prosperity and manufacturing success, vast improvements in the products of agriculture and industry, and undreamed-of access to new means of communication; . . . [the American university] has provided successive generations the opportunity for

meaningful careers, for service in a free society, and for access to the riches of human experience, aspiration, and achievement; . . . it has trained the workforce, enriched the individual experience, . . . enlightened public life, . . . quickened the social conscience and empowered and inspired each rising generation. (p. 1)

Kerr (1991), in writing specifically about the strengths of the American higher education system that emerged during the 1980s after a twenty-year period of major transformation, stated:

Higher education met the test of action from 1960 to 1980 overall quite well, and emerged from this period clearly larger and mostly better. In particular, it was providing more services to more people in the American society than ever before. It had, in many ways, been transformed, and, in the process, it had become a more central aspect of the life of the nation and was, consequently in turn, a greater potential source of transformation for the nation. (p. 376)

But despite the strengths of the American university and the overwhelming benefits it has produced for society, it is facing unprecedented criticism (Altbach, 2001).

The public higher education system has been the target of harsh criticism for being too expensive, inefficient, poorly managed, and for lacking performance criteria (Neimark, 1999). Specifically, the research university has been consistently criticized for failing to engage its undergraduate students in the teaching and learning process (Blimling & Whitt, 1999; National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges [NASULGC], 2001). By encountering this criticism at a time when the landscape of higher education is changing rapidly, the state research university faces a tremendous challenge in forging a new path to regain public confidence. Strong and effective leadership at every level of the university is a critical element of meeting this challenge (Lucas, 2000; Blimling & Whitt, 1999; Boudreau, 1998).

Statement of the Problem

Institutions of higher education currently face a landscape that is changing at an unprecedented rate (Lucas, 2000; Blimling & Whitt, 1999). Along with the challenge of this constant change, public institutions find themselves confronting both a decrease in public confidence and an increase of external criticism over their perceived failure to actively engage students in the teaching and learning process (Blimling & Whitt, 1999; NASULGC, 2001). In addressing the criticism questioning the responsiveness and relevance of public institutions, reports such as *Reinventing Undergraduate Education: A Blueprint for America's Research Universities* (The Boyer Commission on Educating Undergraduates in the Research University [Boyer Commission], 1998) and *Returning to Our Roots: The Student Experience*, by the Kellogg Commission (NASULGC, 1997) emphasize the need for institutions to change the way they engage their undergraduate student population by making undergraduates and their learning a higher priority.

In calling research universities' record of educating undergraduates one of failure, the Boyer Commission (1998) stated:

In a context of increasing stress – declining governmental support, increased costs, mounting outside criticism, and growing consumerism from students and their families – universities too often continue to behave with complacency, indifference, or forgetfulness toward that constituency whose support is vital to the academic enterprise. Baccalaureate students are the second-class citizens who are allowed to pay taxes but are barred from voting, the guests at the banquet who pay their share of the tab but are given leftovers. (p. 37)

This criticism is not new, as scholars and commentators, such as Ernest Boyer and Page Smith, have called for reform in undergraduate education for many years (Boyer, 1990; Smith, 1990; Boudreau, 1998). But the criticism has intensified as higher education has

been slow to change and public trust continues to erode (Boudreau, 1998; NASULGC, 1997).

Observers of American higher education have written extensively on the role that leaders in academic affairs must play in addressing the challenges higher education faces and implementing the necessary changes. However, these writers address the issues facing higher education while giving little or no attention to the role student affairs leaders can or should play in assisting an institution with making undergraduate education the first priority (e.g., Lucas, 2000; Balderston, 1995; Peterson, Dill, & Mets, 1997). Boudreau (1998) in his book, *Universitas: The Social Restructuring of American Undergraduate Education*, fails to mention student affairs and the role it plays on campus even when addressing the issue of students' drug and alcohol use impacting the classroom experience. Surprisingly, the Kellogg Commission on the Future of State and Land-Grant Universities in its *Returning to Our Roots* series of reports fails to specifically or clearly address the critical role student affairs may play in the lives of students (NASULGC, 1997, 1998, 1999, 2000, 2001).

While some commentators and reform reports have failed to stress the important role student affairs must play in addressing the changing environment of higher education, others have clearly recognized this role. Boyer (1987) devotes an entire section of his book, *College: The Undergraduate Experience in America*, to life outside of the classroom and states that the "college of quality remains a place where the curricular and cocurricular are viewed as having a relationship to each other" (p. 195). Schroeder (1999) stresses that in responding to the pressure for improved undergraduate

education, academic personnel and student affairs personnel must work together to create effective learning environments.

For public research universities that employ the dean of students title, the dean of students is in a key leadership position to assist the institution in creating a seamless learning environment for undergraduate students and making undergraduate education a top priority. The dean of students often oversees several of the common functions found in a student affairs division, holds the “primary educational role within student affairs,” and “has assumed the rather undefined but significant role of ‘conscience of the campus’” (Sandeen, 1996, p. 444).

A review of the literature in student affairs, including a search of published dissertations, revealed no empirical studies conducted on the leadership behavior of deans of students at public research universities. Overall, the contemporary dean of students has received minimal scholarly attention in the literature (Robillard, 2000). As a result of the lack of a research base, little is known about the leadership behavior of deans of students and its relationship to the professional staff members’ perceptions of the effectiveness of this behavior. This presents a significant gap in student affairs research since the dean of students plays a major role in the student life program (Ambler, 1993) and is responsible for many of the common student affairs functions (Sandeen, 1996).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the leadership behaviors of deans of students at public research universities in the southeast using Bass and Avolio’s (1997) Full Range of Leadership model. The study investigated the relationship between transformational, transactional, and laissez-fair leadership behaviors of the deans and the

outcome variables of subordinate satisfaction with the leader, subordinate perception of leadership effectiveness, and subordinate willingness to exert extra effort.

Specifically, this study addressed the following research questions:

1. To what extent do deans of students exhibit transformational, transactional, and laissez-fair leadership behaviors as rated by their subordinates using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short)?
2. Is there a relationship between the transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership behavior of deans of students and their subordinate professional staff members' perception of leader effectiveness as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short)?
3. Is there a relationship between the transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership behavior of deans of students and their subordinate professional staff members' satisfaction with their leader as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short)?
4. Is there a relationship between the transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership behavior of deans of students and their subordinate professional staff members' willingness to exert extra effort as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short)?
5. Is there a relationship between gender and the transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership behavior of deans of students as rated by their subordinates using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short)?

Theoretical Background

Leaders in public institutions face the challenge of how to lead at a time when conditions are changing, public confidence is low, resources are tight, and options are limited (NASULGC, 1997). Blimling and Whitt (1999) state that doing things the way they have always been done is not an appropriate response for student affairs during this period of reform in higher education. In facing the current challenges, there is a need for visionary leadership within student affairs (Rogers, 1996). The authors of the report,

Returning to Our Roots: The Student Experience, state, “We live in an age of transformational not technical change. Our leadership, like our institutions, must become transformational as well” (NASULGC, 1997, p. 21). Therefore, transformational leadership theory is particularly applicable to the contemporary dean of students’ role within the institution.

Transformational leadership was first distinguished from transactional leadership by Dowton (1973). However, it was the work of Burns (1978) that first drew major attention to the ideas associated with transformational leadership (Leithwood, Tomlinson, & Genge, 1996). Burns (1978) conceptualized two factors, transactional and transformational, to differentiate ordinary from extraordinary leadership. Transactional (ordinary) leadership is based on an exchange relationship in which follower compliance (effort, productivity, and loyalty) is exchanged for expected rewards. Transformational (extraordinary) leaders raise followers’ consciousness levels about the importance and value of designated outcomes and ways of achieving them. They also motivate followers to transcend their own immediate self-interest for the sake of the mission and vision of the organization. Followers’ confidence levels are raised and their needs broadened by the leader to support their development to higher potential. Such total engagement (emotional, intellectual and moral) encourages followers to develop and perform beyond expectations (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985; Sergiovanni, 1991).

Bass (1985) operationalized the work of Burns (1978) by developing a model of transformational and transactional leadership that he later revised with Bruce Avolio and that is now referred to as the Full Range of Leadership model (Bass & Avolio, 1994). The model identifies four distinct transformational leadership behavior constructs:

idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Three behavioral constructs identify transactional leadership: contingent reward, management-by-exception active, and management-by-exception passive. The model also includes a leadership behavior referred to as laissez-faire leadership, the most inactive form of leadership where a leader chooses not to guide performance when the situation would warrant guidance (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Bass is credited as being the first researcher to operationalize a transformational leadership model into a measurement instrument by his development of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Chen, 1997; Conger, 1989).

Bass' (1985) conception of transformational leadership and transactional leadership contrasts with that of Burns (1978) who considered transformational and transactional leadership practices as opposite ends of a continuum. Bass (1985) contends that most leaders display transformational and transactional leadership in varying degrees. Transformational leadership augments transactional leadership. Transactional practices on their own do little to bring about the enhanced commitment and extra effort required for the positive change that will occur when the members of an organization experience transformational leadership (Leithwood et al., 1996).

Bass and Avolio (1997), in establishing the reliability and validity of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire as an instrument that can measure transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors as defined by their Full Range of Leadership model, utilized a validation samples set and a cross-validation samples set. The validation samples were collected from several different types of organizational settings including military, business, political, non-profit, educational, and public service

organizations (Bass & Avolio, 1997). The only connection any of the samples in the sets had to higher education was the use of undergraduate students and the evaluation of leaders in nursing schools. The samples did not include any studies using student affairs practitioners at public research universities.

While research has shown transformational leadership behaviors to be significantly and positively related to outcomes of willingness of followers to exert extra effort, a perception that the leader's leadership behavior is effective, and an overall sense of satisfaction with the leader on the part of the followers (Bass, 1985; Seltzer & Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1997; Bass 1998), the population sample for the current study may differ from the validation samples in ways that may weaken or enhance the relationships between leader behaviors and subordinate criterion variables. Researchers have noted that variables related to subordinate, task, and organizational characteristics can serve to weaken, neutralize or enhance the relationships between particular leader behaviors and subordinate criterion variables (Kerr & Jermier, 1978; Howell, Dorfman, & Kerr, 1986).

Therefore, in evaluating the leadership behaviors of deans of students through the extension of Bass and Avolio's (1997) Full Range of Leadership model to student affair practitioners, the issue of what evidence exists to suggest the theory is applicable to the current study's population arises. This issue is important since the current study is extending the theory to a new population as opposed to testing the theory itself. The evidence supporting the extension of the theory to student affairs practitioners comes from Bass' (1998) review of the research on transformational leadership over a wide range of organizational types and settings.

Bass (1998), in recognizing that variables related to subordinate, task, and organizational characteristics can affect the relationships between particular leader behaviors and subordinate criterion variables, stated that situational contingencies do make a difference. However, Bass (1998) noted that over fifteen years of research indicates that situational contingencies do not override the general finding that transformational leadership behaviors are significantly and positively related to outcomes of willingness of followers to exert extra effort, a perception that the leader's leadership behavior is effective, and an overall sense of satisfaction with the leader on the part of the followers. Bass (1998) argues that research has indicated that transformational leadership is more effective than constructive transactions, which are more effective than corrective transactions, regardless of situational contingencies.

This study investigated whether deans of students at public research universities in the southeast exhibit transformational leadership behaviors, and if so, whether this leadership style enhanced employee perceptions of extra effort, leadership effectiveness, and follower satisfaction with leaders' methods.

Definition of Terms

Specific terms used in this study are defined below.

Contingent Reward

Contingent reward is a transactional leadership behavior that rewards followers for attaining specific performance levels. The leader utilizes primarily extrinsic motivators to reward followers contingent upon effort and performance level achieved.

Dean of Students

The dean of students is a full-time student affairs professional who performs supervisory and managerial activities within the division of student affairs and who is not the chief student affairs officer. The dean of students is responsible for several of the student affairs functions found on university campuses (Sandeen, 1996). Deans of students generally report directly to the chief student affairs officer with the title vice president or vice chancellor (Ambler, 1993). Other titles used for individuals having the responsibilities of the dean of students are director of student life and dean of student life. For the purpose of this study, the title dean of students will be used to represent those persons holding the position of dean of students, director of student life, or dean of student life.

Doctoral/Research Universities-Extensive

Doctoral/Research Universities-Extensive are institutions that typically offer a wide range of baccalaureate programs and are committed to graduate education through the doctorate. They award 50 or more doctoral degrees per year across at least 15 disciplines (Carnegie Foundation, 2000).

Doctoral/Research Universities-Intensive

Doctoral/Research Universities-Intensive are institutions that typically offer a wide range of baccalaureate programs and are committed to graduate education through the doctorate. They award at least ten doctoral degrees per year across three or more disciplines, or at least 20 doctoral degrees per year overall (Carnegie Foundation, 2000).

Effectiveness

Effectiveness refers to a leader's ability to meet the job-related needs of the followers and promote productivity within the department. This capacity also includes the leader's ability to make contributions to the entire organization while representing the follower's interests to the senior leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1995).

Full Range of Leadership Model

The Full Range of Leadership model is a leadership model proposed by Bass and Avolio (1997) developed from Bass' (1985) transformational leadership theory. It includes elements of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire or non-leadership behaviors.

Idealized Influence

Idealized influence is a leadership behavior that result in leaders as role models. These leaders are seen as courageous, visionary, value driven and as change agents. They are admired, respected and trusted. Here the leader is viewed as having high moral standards and uses power only when necessary. This leader provides consistency and is seen as a risk taker (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Individualized Consideration

Individualized consideration is a leadership behavior that significantly contributes to the subordinates achieving their fullest potential (Bass, 1998). Leaders that exhibit this behavior develop subordinates through coaching, mentoring, and providing feedback (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Inspirational Motivation

Inspirational motivation is leadership that excites, arouses and inspires subordinates in ways that increase optimism and pride (Bass, 1985, 1998). Inspirational motivation provides meaning and challenge in the follower's work. Followers are involved in the creation of new futures through a shared vision. Expectations are clearly communicated in such a way that followers are committed to jointly developed goals (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Intellectual Stimulation

Intellectual stimulation is a leadership behavior that encourages followers to analyze problems and seek out innovative solutions. The leader that utilizes intellectual stimulation provides subordinates with challenging new ideas and stimulates thinking in new ways (Bass, 1985).

Laissez-Faire Leadership

Laissez-faire leadership is the most extreme form of passive leadership, considered to be non-leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994). The leader avoids making decisions and is inactive rather than reactive or proactive. The leader evades getting involved when important issues arise and fails to provide assistance when requested. The leader is not motivated or adequately skilled to perform duties (Bass, 1998).

Management-by-Exception (Active)

Management-by-exception (active) is a contingent reinforcement behavior in which the leader actively seeks deviations from standards and takes actions when irregularities occur (Bass & Avolio, 1994). The leader shuns giving directions if old

ways work and the followers continue to work in familiar patterns as long as performance goals are met (Hater & Bass, 1988).

Management-by-Exception (Passive)

Management-by-exception (passive) is a leadership behavior in which the leader only takes actions after deviations and irregularities are evident (Hartog, van Muijen, & Koopman, 1997). The leader waits for problems to materialize prior to any intervention (Hater & Bass, 1988).

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) is a measurement instrument developed by Bass and associates to identify and measure (a) the framework of leadership factors included in Bass and Avolio's Full Range of Leadership Development model, and (b) a set of three leadership outcomes (follower extra effort, leader effectiveness, follower satisfaction with the leader's methods) that occur as a result of leader behavior (Bass & Avolio, 1997).

Professional Staff

Professional staff are fulltime student affairs practitioners who have responsibility for one or more outside-the-classroom services or programs at a post-secondary institution. Professional staff typically have at least a master's degree in student affairs, counseling, or higher education administration and are a member of a professional association related to student affairs (Winston & Miller, 1991).

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership is leadership based on the exchange between leader and follower (Burns, 1978). It is implemented through a series of implicit bargains in which

the leader offers incentives and rewards in exchange for satisfaction of lower order needs (Bass, 1985).

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership is leadership based on mutual stimulation and shared vision, going beyond self-interest exchanges (Bass, 1985, 1998). Transformational leaders broaden and elevate the interest of followers and have a transforming effect. They motivate their followers and seek to fulfill their higher order needs (Bass, 1985).

Delimitations and Assumptions

For the purpose of this study, the following delimitations, limitations, and assumptions apply:

Delimitations

1. This study is delimited to deans of students at public research universities that (a) are classified as either Doctoral/Research Universities-Extensive or Doctoral/Research Universities-Intensive by the 2000 Carnegie Classification (Carnegie Foundation, 2000), (b) employ the dean of students title to recognize a student affairs professional staff member that is not the chief student affairs officer, and (c) are located in the Southeastern states of Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Kentucky, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia. Therefore, it is not intended to be reflective of the leadership profiles of deans of students at large.
2. The study is delimited to the leadership factors developed by Bass (1998) of Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, Individualized Consideration, Contingent Reward, Management-by-Exception, and Laissez-Faire.
3. This study will examine the perceptions of subordinates of deans of students regarding transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors. It will not examine the perceptions of deans of students' peers or supervisors.

Limitations

1. The sample composite of deans of students from public research universities might not be representative of deans of students as a whole.
2. The subordinates who participate in this study might respond to the MLQ as they believe they should and not answer truthfully.
3. The study will utilize only one measurement of leadership style, the MLQ Short Form 5x.

Assumptions

1. Professional staff members within a dean of students office are able to identify leadership qualities based on their perceptions of the dean's effectiveness.
2. Professional staff members within a dean of students office are able to evaluate their satisfaction with the dean.
3. Professional staff members within a dean of students office are able to evaluate their willingness to exert extra effort.
4. All subjects responded truthfully and accurately.

Organization of the Study

This study comprises five chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the study's justification, its purpose, the problem that it addressed, and the research questions that were tested. In chapter 2, pertinent literature is reviewed with a focus on leadership theory, transformational leadership, and information on the development and use of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. This chapter also contains a review of the history of the student affairs dean. Chapter 3 describes the method that was used for answering the research questions. Chapter 4 presents the results of the statistical analyses that were used to answer the research questions. Chapter 5 provides the overall findings of the study, conclusions drawn from the statistical analyses, implications of the results, and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of this study was to examine the leadership behaviors of deans of students at public research universities in the southeast using Bass and Avolio's (1997) Full Range of Leadership model. The study will investigate the relationship between transformational, transactional, and laissez-fair leadership behaviors of the deans and the outcome variables of subordinate satisfaction with the leader, subordinate perception of leadership effectiveness, and subordinate willingness to exert extra effort.

Specifically, this study addressed the following research questions:

1. To what extent do deans of students exhibit transformational, transactional, and laissez-fair leadership behaviors as rated by their subordinates using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short)?
2. Is there a relationship between the transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership behavior of deans of students and their subordinate professional staff members' perception of leader effectiveness as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short)?
3. Is there a relationship between the transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership behavior of deans of students and their subordinate professional staff members' satisfaction with their leader as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short)?
4. Is there a relationship between the transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership behavior of deans of students and their subordinate professional staff members' willingness to exert extra effort as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short)?
5. Is there a relationship between gender and the transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership

behavior of deans of students as rated by their subordinates using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short)?

Definitions of Leadership

The perceived importance of leadership is evidenced by the volumes of publications published on the topic. While there are numerous definitions of leadership, influencing others is a common theme of the definitions. Hilgert and Haimann (1991) defined leadership simply as “the ability to guide and influence the opinions, attitudes, and behavior of others” (pp. 16-17). Gulley (1960) proposed that leadership is “influencing others within a particular situation and social context in a way that induces them to follow, be modified, or to be directed” (p. 174).

Other definitions explicitly state that leadership is goal directed. Kreitner and Kinicki (1995) stated that leadership is “influencing employees to voluntarily pursue organizational goals” (p. 428). Stogdill (1974) defined leadership as “the process of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement” (p. 57). Nahavandi's (1997) and Dessler's (1995) definitions of a leader strongly support the idea that leadership is goal directed. Nahavandi (1997) defined a leader “as any person who influences individuals and groups within an organization, helps them in the establishment of goals, and guides them toward achievement of those goals, thereby allowing them to be effective” (p. 4). Dessler (1995) stated “leadership occurs whenever one person influences another to work toward some predetermined objective” (p. 364).

Jago (1982) defined leadership in terms of both process and property:

The process of leadership is the use of non-coercive influence to direct and coordinate the activities of the members of an organized group toward the accomplishment of group objectives. As a property, leadership is the set

of qualities or characteristics attributed to those who are perceived to successfully employ such influence. (p. 315)

These definitions imply that anyone who is able to influence others toward objectives can be considered a leader. However, formal leadership is tied to a hierarchical position. Yukl (1994) used the term leader “to refer to people who occupy positions in which they are expected to exert leadership” (p. 5). This was supported by Nahavandi (1997) stating “the presence of leaders often assumes some form of hierarchy within a group” (p. 4).

Theories of Leadership

Although leadership has been the subject of debate, examination, and investigation for thousands of years, it has only been a topic of continuous formal analysis by scholars for the last 100 years with several of the leadership theories being developed in the past 50 years. The leadership theories and research can be classified as trait, behavioral, situational, and transformational approaches. The evolution of leadership theories and leadership research can be seen by reviewing these major categories.

Trait Theories

Many of the earliest leadership investigations centered on identifying and measuring the specific personal characteristics of leaders based on the assumption that great leaders are born, not made (Megginson, Mosley, & Peitri, 1989; Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995). This approach is commonly referred to as the trait theory of leadership and it dominated the study of leadership during the first half of the twentieth century. Studies employing the trait approach attempted to identify distinctive physical or psychological characteristics related to leadership behavior. The majority of these studies compared

leaders with non-leaders to identify differences that existed with respect to their physical characteristics, personalities, and abilities (Yukl, 1989).

Prior to World War II, hundreds of leadership trait studies were conducted identifying dozens of leadership traits (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995). Stogdill (1948) reviewed and synthesized the results of over 120 of these studies and came to the conclusion that no specific traits or personal characteristics stood out as certain, or even strong, indicators of leadership. Stogdill's findings brought criticism to the trait theories and initiated a shift from focusing on traits to focusing on the behavior of leaders (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995).

Behavioral Theories

During World War II, as both a reaction to the criticism of trait research and the burgeoning human relations movement, behavioral theories of leadership began to emerge (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995). The concept behind behavioral leadership theory is that group effectiveness is directly affected by leader behavior. Studies in this area focus on identifying patterns of behavior often referred to as leadership styles that enable leaders to effectively influence others (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995).

The studies conducted by Lewin and his associates (Lewin, Lippit, & White, 1939) in the 1930s are considered the precursor to the behavioral approach (Daft, 1999). Lewin et al. (1939) identified the styles of leadership as autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire. According to Daft (1999), "an autocratic leader is one who tends to centralize authority and derive power from position, control of rewards, and coercion. A democratic leader delegates authority to others, encourages participation, relies on subordinates' knowledge for completion of tasks, and depends on subordinate respect for

influence” (p. 69). A laissez-faire leader is permissive and allows followers to do what they want with minimum direction or discipline (Megginson et al., 1989).

Lewin et al. (1939) concluded that the democratic leadership style was the most productive of the three. Work continued in the democratic environment when the leader was not present implying group cohesiveness and motivation. The lowest productivity was found with the laissez-faire environment in which worker frustration was high. Work proceeded intensely in the autocratic environment as long as the leader was present. However, work stopped when the leader was not present and worker aggression was prevalent in this environment.

Two of the better-known behavioral leadership studies are the Ohio State Studies and the Michigan Studies. These studies, like most of the behavioral studies, focused on identifying the leader’s orientation toward the employee, the task to be completed, or a combination of the two (Megginson et al, 1989).

In studies conducted mostly in factories, researchers at Ohio State University identified two types, or two dimensions, of behavior on the part of supervisors: “initiating structure” and “consideration” (Daft, 1999). Consideration is an employee relation oriented type that is identified by characteristics such as being friendly, considerate, supportive, open and consultative. Leader behavior focuses on a concern for employees’ needs and the leader strives to create an environment of mutual respect and trust (Daft, 1999). Initiating structure types are task oriented and are prone to be directive, to coordinate, to plan and to problem solve. Leader behavior focuses on defining and organizing what employees should be doing to maximize output (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995). The Ohio State researchers found that the best results were obtained when leaders

engaged in high levels of both task-focused and relationship-centered behavior (Daft, 1999).

The University of Michigan studies compared the behavior of effective leaders with ineffective leaders. The Michigan researchers developed two types of leadership behavior termed employee-centered and job-centered (Daft, 1999). The employee-centered leader focuses on the needs of the followers and stresses interaction and support. The job-centered leader directs activities toward efficiency by focusing on reaching task goals and facilitating the structure of the work tasks (Daft, 1999). The employee-centered and job-centered styles of leadership roughly correspond to the Ohio State Studies' concepts of consideration and initiating structure respectively. However, unlike the Ohio State studies, the researchers at Michigan considered the two leadership styles to be distinct, with a leader being one or the other, but not both (Daft, 1999). The Michigan researchers findings indicated that employee-centered leaders were more productive than job-centered leaders (Megginson et al., 1989).

The findings of behavioral studies such as the Ohio State and Michigan studies have been questioned and criticized by other researchers (Daft, 1999; Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995). The criticism has included references to later research indicating that styles other than the ones considered optimal by the studies can be effective (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995; Daft, 1999). Other critics have pointed out that while "it is relatively easy to call certain behaviors of leaders effective once the desired outcomes have been observed, it is much more difficult to stipulate in advance the behavior of leaders that result in the desired outcomes" (Bensimon, Neuman, & Birnbaum 1989, p. 14).

Situational Theories

The limitations of trait and behavioral theories led researchers to explore a new direction in leadership study. The new focus was on the situation in which leadership occurred (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969). The concept behind situational or contingency leadership theories is that leader effectiveness does not depend on who the leader is or on the leader exhibiting a high degree of certain behaviors. Instead, effective leadership is based on engaging in different combinations of task and relationship behavior in different situations. The appropriate style of leadership to be used depends on the situation, the people, the organization, or other environmental factors (Megginson et al, 1989).

Research conducted by Fiedler (1974), McGregor (1960), Mannheim, Rim and Grinberg (1967), and Hunt and Liebscher (1973) concluded that work settings that vary in task structure and climate foster differential leader behavior. Vroom and Yetton (1973) proposed that it is the leader's decision making behavior that affects group performance. According to their approach the effectiveness of a decision making procedure depends on aspects of the situation such as the likelihood that followers will cooperate if allowed to participate in the decision making process.

One of the most widely cited situational approaches is Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership theory. Hersey and Blanchard (1977, 1988) postulated a model that identifies the readiness level of the followers and links it to the willingness and ability of the followers to achieve the goals of the organization. Situational leadership theory takes into consideration the followers' developmental level in order to determine the leader's approach to accomplishing tasks. There are four categories of leader task and relationship behavior for this model: (a) high task/low relationship, in which actions are

initiated and decisions made by the leader; (b) high task/high relationship, wherein the leader provides a considerable amount of direction but also listens to input from followers; (c) low task/high relationship, which incorporates a shift in problem-solving from the leader to the followers; and (d) low relationship/low task which results in almost total delegation of decision making to followers. The appropriate category of leader behavior is based upon the follower's readiness level as it relates to the task to be accomplished (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). Therefore, this model requires a high degree of discernment on the part of leaders.

Situational leadership theory has been heavily criticized. The major criticism is that the model lacks a sound theoretical foundation for the hypothesized relationships among variables (Graeff, 1997). Other researchers have criticized the model by stating that leader use of supportive behavior is an important contribution to effective leadership at all levels of subordinate readiness (Goodson, McGee, & Cashman, 1989).

Transformational Leadership

Burns (1978) conducted a comprehensive study of leadership and concluded that all leadership could be classified as either transactional or transformational. He stated that a leader-follower interaction that is transactional in nature has the leader offering a reward for the expected valued response of the follower. Therefore, in transactional leadership, motivation is achieved when the leader is able to appeal to the self-interest of the followers. Incentives and rewards are used for influencing motivation. Beyond the achievement of their related goals, both leader and follower experience no enduring relationship (Burns, 1978). By contrast, transforming leadership moves to a level of morality in that both leaders and followers so engage with one another that they raise

each other to a greater sense of purpose and to aspirations that are noble and transcending (Burns, 1978). Burns' work led to the development of several new approaches to the study of what is referred to as transformational leadership (Daft, 1999). The term is used to contrast this new leadership with the older, transactional leadership approach.

Burns (1978) defined the transforming leader as one who "recognizes and exploits an existing need or demand of a potential follower. But, beyond that, the transforming leader looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower" (Burns, 1978, p. 4). Burns (1978) integrated Maslow's (1954) theory of human needs and Kohlberg's (1981) theory of moral development to build his definition of transforming leadership and to examine moral leadership, which he views as "going beyond simply satisfying the follower's wants or desires to being actually instrumental in producing the social change that will satisfy both the followers' and leaders authentic needs" (p. 4).

Motivated by Burn's development of transformational leadership, Bass (1985) sought to investigate what type of action or strategies leaders use in transforming followers toward achieving organizational goals. He views the constructs of transactional and transformational leadership as complementary. Therefore, transformational leadership behaviors are likely to be ineffective in the absence of a transactional relationship between leader and follower (Bass, Avolio, & Goodheim, 1987). According to Bass (1985), transformational leadership augments transactional management to achieve higher levels of follower performance with the primary difference residing in the process by which the leader motivates followers and in the types of goals set. The ability

of transformational leaders to obtain performance beyond basic expectations of followers has been labeled the “augmentation hypothesis” (Waldman, Bass, & Yammarino, 1990).

Bass (1985) viewed the transactional leader as one who operates within the existing system, tends to avoid risk, focuses on time constraints and efficiency, and prefers process over substance for maintaining control. The transactional leader fulfills the needs of followers in exchange for performance that meets basic expectations. A transactional leader is most likely to be effective in a predictable and stable environment where measuring current performance against prior performance is the most successful strategy (Bass, 1985, 1998).

Bass (1985) characterized the transformational leader as one who seeks new ways of working, seeks opportunities in the face of risk, prefers effective answers to efficient answers, and is less likely to support the status quo. The transformational leader attempts to shape and create environmental circumstances as opposed to merely reacting to them (Avolio & Bass, 1988). He or she will use transactional strategies when appropriate, but will also motivate by appealing to followers’ ideals and moral values and challenge them to think about problems in new ways. The transformational leader raises the level of intellectual awareness of the followers about the importance of valued outcomes and motivates followers beyond their own self-interest for the sake of the organization (Bass, 1985).

The Full Range of Leadership Model

Bass (1985) operationalized the concept of transformational and transactional leadership by developing a leadership behavior model that he later refined with Bruce Avolio and is referred to as the Full Range of Leadership Model (Bass & Avolio, 1994;

Bass & Avolio, 1997; Bass, 1998). The Full Range of Leadership Model contains three classifications of leadership processes: (a) transformational, (b) transactional, and (c) laissez-faire or non-leadership behavior (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bass, 1998). The model predicts that leaders who are more transformational and less transactional are more effective as leaders and more satisfying to their followers (Bass & Avolio, 1997).

Components of Transformational Leadership

The first set of leadership behaviors in the full range of leadership model identifies four distinct transformational leadership behaviors, called the “Four I’s”: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p. 3). According to Bass and Avolio (1994) transformation leaders employ one or more of the “Four I’s” to achieve better results than leaders that only exhibit transactional behavior.

Idealized influence is a transformational leadership behavior that results in leaders being role models for the individuals they are leading. It is characterized by the leader putting the followers’ needs above the leader’s own personal needs, consistently demonstrating high ethical standards, and using power only when necessary (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Bass and Avolio (1997) divided idealized influence into idealized influence-attributed and idealized influence-behavior. Idealized influence-attributed is characterized by a leader who is risk-taker, makes followers feel good to be with him or her, creates a sense of belongingness to the common cause, and cares about the interests of the followers (Bass & Avolio, 1997). Idealized influence-behavior is characterized by a leader who displays a high ethical and moral code, is a risk-taker, and has a strong sense of mission (Bass, 1998).

Inspirational motivation is characterized by behaviors that provide meaning, challenging goals, a sense of vision and mission, and belief that followers can reach goals they may have originally thought too difficult to achieve. Optimism and enthusiasm are expressed by the leader in getting followers to become engaged in envisioning attractive future states (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Intellectual stimulation is characterized by leader behavior that questions underlying assumptions, reframes problems, and finds creative solutions to difficult problems. This behavior develops the potential for followers to solve problems in the future and encourages creative thought (Bass, 1998; Bass & Avolio, 1997).

Individual consideration is a transformational behavior that focuses on the growth and development of each follower, providing them with new opportunities to learn, and giving them personalized attention. The leader coaches, mentors, and teaches in an attempt to help followers reach the established goals (Bass, 1998; Bass & Avolio, 1997).

Components of Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership behavior is expressed by the rewarding or disciplining of the follower depending on the adequacy of the follower's performance (Bass, 1998). The model breaks transactional leadership into the two components of contingent reward and management-by-exception.

Contingent reward is characterized by the leader stressing an exchange where the "leader assigns or gets agreement on what needs to be done and promises rewards or actually rewards others in exchange for satisfactorily carrying out the assignment" (Bass, 1998, p. 6). Reward is contingent upon the effort expended by the follower and performance level achieved (Bass, 1998).

Management-by-exception is defined by Bass (1998) as a “corrective transaction” and occurs when a leader intervenes to make a correction only when something has gone wrong or a mistake has been made (p. 7). Management-by-exception can either be active or passive. Management-by-exception active is characterized by the leader actively watching for deviations from the norm, and taking action when irregularities occur (Bass & Avolio, 1997). Management-by-exception passive is characterized by the leader intervening only after a correction is needed. There is no active monitoring for deviations from the norm (Bass & Avolio, 1997).

Laissez-Faire Leadership

Laissez-faire leadership is the third classification of leadership in the Full Range of Leadership Model and was added to address behaviors that indicate a non-transaction of leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1997). Laissez-faire leadership is the most inactive form of leadership and is characterized by the leader avoiding decisions and not using his or her authority. Bass (1998) states that Laissez-Faire behavior is “the avoidance or absence of leadership and is, by definition, most inactive, as well as the most ineffective according to almost all research on style” (p. 7).

The Augmentation Effect of Transformational Leadership

The Full Range of Leadership Model predicts that transformational leadership will add to the effectiveness of transactional leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1997; Bass, 1998). Although effective leaders are both transformational and transactional, Bass (1985, 1998) states that transformational leadership augments transactional leadership in predicting leadership behavior effects on the outcome variables of subordinate willingness to exert extra effort, perception of leader effectiveness, and satisfaction with

the leader. Specifically, the augmentation effect states that transformational leadership behaviors should account for unique variance in followers' ratings of the outcome variables over and above that accounted for by transactional leadership (Bass, 1998).

The Optimal Leader Profile

According to the Full Range of Leadership Model, every leader displays transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors to some degree (Bass, 1998). However, the leader with an optimal profile infrequently displays laissez-faire leadership and displays successively higher frequencies of the transactional behaviors of management-by-exception passive, management-by-exception active, and contingent reward. The optimal leader profile displays the five transformational leadership behaviors of idealized influence-attributed, idealized influence-behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration the most frequently (Bass, 1998).

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

According to Chemers (1997), the research of Bass and his associates provided the support that was needed for applying transformational leadership concepts to complex, formal organizations. Both Chemers (1997) and Conger (1989) give Bass credit for being the first researcher to operationalize a transformational leadership model into a measurement instrument by his development of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ).

Bass (1985) developed the MLQ to assess the leadership constructs of transformational and transactional leadership explicated by his theory. The MLQ was initially generated by exploratory methods and then tested in the field using factor

analysis (Bass, 1985). The MLQ has undergone several modifications to answer criticisms about its validity and to be a better gauge of the full range of leadership (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1995). The current form of the MLQ measures five transformational leadership constructs, three transactional leadership constructs, and one nonleadership construct. The nine scales are (a) idealized influence-attributed, (b) idealized influence-behavior, (c) inspirational motivation, (d) intellectual stimulation, (e) individualized consideration, (f) contingent reward, (g) management-by-exception (active), (h) management-by-exception (passive), and (i) laissez-faire leadership (Avolio et al, 1995). The first five scales refer to transformational leadership, the next three to transactional leadership, and the last scale to nonleadership. The MLQ also measures three outcomes of leadership: (a) extra effort of followers, (b) effectiveness of the leader, and (c) follower satisfaction with the leader (Avolio et al, 1995).

The MLQ Hierarchy of Correlations

The Full Range of Leadership model predicts a hierarchy of correlations of the MLQ components with the outcome variables of leader effectiveness, satisfaction with the leader, and willingness to exert extra effort. The predicted hierarchy of correlations states transformational behaviors will have higher correlations with the outcome variables than contingent reward. Contingent reward will have higher correlations than management-by-exception active, which will have higher correlations than management-by-exception passive. Laissez-faire leadership will have the lowest correlations scores (Bass & Avolio, 1997).

Research on Transformational Leadership

A review of the literature on transformational leadership indicates that it has a consistent, reliable, and positive relationship to effectiveness measures, whether organizationally based or subjectively determined as predicted by Bass (1985) in the development of his theory. The empirical work on transformational leadership covers a wide area, and applies the concepts in a number of different disciplines and settings.

Transformational leadership has been found to have a substantive and significant relationship on organizational and group effectiveness (Avolio, Howell, & Sosik, 1999; Avolio, Waldman, & Einstein, 1988; Barling, Weber, & Kelloway 1996; Geyer & Steyrer, 1998; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Jung & Avolio, 1999; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996), and perception of performance of the leader (Hater & Bass, 1988; Yammarino, Spangler, & Bass, 1993). Lowe et al. (1996), in a meta-analysis of 39 studies, found that a strong relationship exists between the transformational scales and leadership effectiveness measures using either organizationally determined criteria or the MLQ. Bass, Waldman, Avolio, and Bebb (1987) found transformational leadership to have a powerful modeling effect on followers and on the organizational culture. Transformational leadership was found to be predictive of innovation and creativity (Howell & Higgins, 1990; Keller, 1992; Sosik, 1997), positive work attitude and product knowledge (Yammarino et al., 1997), and followers feeling empowered (Howell & Higgins, 1990). Furthermore, transformational leadership is predictive of satisfaction with the leader (Barling, Weber & Kelloway, 1996; Druskat, 1994; Howell & Frost, 1989; Koh, Steers, & Terborg, 1995; Ross & Offermann, 1997), follower commitment (Yammarino et al., 1997), organizational commitment (Barling et al., 1996; Koh et al.,

1995), and organizational citizenship (Koh et al., 1995). It has also been found that individuals can be trained to exhibit transformational leadership behavior (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1998; Bass & Avolio, 1997; Shea & Howell, 1999).

The large amount of research studies done on transformational leadership which appear in a broad range of scholarly publications suggest that it is one of the most important contemporary leadership topics. Overall, the amount of research on transformational leadership that indicates it has a consistent, reliable and positive relationship to effective measures is impressive. The following section analyzes possible contingencies and limitations.

Contingencies and Limitations of the Full Range of Leadership Model

Transformational leadership theory is moderated by situational variables including level of the leader, the leader's personality, type of organization, the organizational environment, characteristics of the followers, and type of criterion used to determine effectiveness (Bass, 1985; Lowe et al., 1996). Transformational leaders are more likely to arise in times of crises or of major change, and in organic types of organizations that are not highly structured with routine tasks and functions (Bass, 1985). Bass (1998) states that organizational turbulence is a condition that often supports the emergence of transformational leadership in contrast to transactional leadership, which "is likely to emerge and be relatively effective when leaders face a stable, predictable environment" (p. 52).

Bass (1985) speculated that the effectiveness of transformational leadership behavior may be contingent on the type of tasks to be performed. For example, Bycio, Hackett, and Allen (1995) found that transactional behaviors are very important in

situations where safety is a major concern. Bass (1998) has also stated that where safety is a priority, management-by-exception active may play a more prominent role in determining organizational effectiveness than it does in other situations.

In terms of differences between a leader's gender, Druskat (1994), Bass, Avolio, and Atwater (1996), Carless (1998), and Bass (1998) noted that women tend to display transformational behaviors more often than men. This is in contrast to a study by Maher (1997) finding that there are no differences between men and women leaders in displaying transformational behaviors. According to Bass (1998) the differences that were found may be explained by the fact that women are socialized to display more nurturing, caring and developmental behaviors than men, and these behaviors are essential elements of transformational leadership. Maher (1997) argued that any potential differences that may have been found may not be universal and can be attributed to situational or contextual variables.

The Dean of Students

In 1870, Harvard's President Eliot appointed Professor Ephraim Gurney as the first college dean (Rentz, 1996; Brubaker & Rudy, 1997; Caple, 1998). Although Gurney's responsibilities remained primarily academic, he assumed responsibility for student discipline previously handled by President Eliot. Twenty years later, Harvard divided the dean's position into two offices essentially creating an academic dean and a student affairs dean (Caple, 1998). An instructor of English, LeBaron Russell Briggs, took on the nonacademic responsibilities related to students. For this reason, he is generally considered the first dean of students (Rentz, 1996; Brubaker & Rudy, 1997; Rhatigan, 2000). In his book about Dean Briggs, Brown (1926) wrote that Briggs's goals

for being dean included “(a) To help the student disciplined, and not merely to humiliate him; (b) to make it easy for the faculty to do its work; and (c) to develop a sentiment among the students which would render discipline less and less necessary” (p. 101). As his position developed, Dean Briggs took on several responsibilities outside of discipline including registration, student record keeping, assisting entering students, counseling students, and monitoring extracurricular activity (Brown, 1926; Rentz, 1996; Brubaker & Rudy, 1997).

By the early 1900s, the combination of increased student influence on extracurricular activities and increasing enrollments resulted in institutions adding personnel to take on the responsibilities related to student life outside of the classroom (Leonard, 1956). As a result, the positions of dean of men and dean of women became “mainstays of morality and decorum” (Dressel, 1981, p. 94). Deans of men and women were responsible for many out-of-class services and activities. Among their functions were student discipline, housing, counseling, advising, student governance and other student organizations, career development, health, supervision of facilities and social events, and parental and public relations (Cohen, 1998; Dinniman, 1977; Rentz, 1996). Deans of women were expected to give special attention to supervising the female student’s social life, housing, health, and social hygiene (Dinniman, 1977).

Around the World War I period, student personnel professional associations began to emerge as a result of student personnel deans traveling to neighboring campuses to meet and discuss the common problems and issues they each faced (Dinniman, 1977; Rentz, 1996). The deans of women formed the National Association of Deans of Women in 1916, which later became the National Association for Women in Education. The

deans of men formed the National Association of Deans and Advisors of Men in 1919 (Fenske, 1989; Caple, 1998). The National Association of Deans and Advisors of Men later became the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators while in 1924 members of the existing gender specific associations founded the American College Personnel Association (Rentz, 1996). Denniman (1977) noted that the formation of the professional organizations, publications on student personnel work, and the development of training programs for deans of students, "were all indications of the deanship's professionalization and growing influence in higher education" (p. 8).

After World War I, the student personnel movement experienced an expansion driven by the acceptance and application of mental testing and counseling techniques developed by the Army during the war (Fenske, 1989; Brubacher & Rudy, 1997; Caple, 1998). As testing and counseling gained credibility as tools to help students, their use became widespread. Employing counseling on a large scale offered the student personnel movement a greater degree of professionalism while the development and use of new pedagogical and psychological theories gave support to the functions of student personnel work (Garland, 1985; Caple, 1998). The importance of students' non-cognitive needs in their overall development was becoming increasingly recognized resulting in the expanding and diversifying of student affairs functions on college and university campuses (Brubacher & Rudy, 1997; Caple, 1998).

The period proceeding and just following World War II saw an increase in the emphasis placed on student affairs functions (Caple, 1998; Rhatigan, 2000). The philosophical basis for the student affairs profession was sharpened during this period by the publication of the American Council on Education's 1937 and 1949 reports titled *The*

Student Personnel Point of View (Garland, 1985; Fenske, 1989; Rentz, 1996; Caple, 1998). The reports emphasized the philosophical basis for student personnel work and provided the foundation and assumptions that many professionals believed to represent the spirit of the profession (Garland, 1985; Rentz, 1996).

While the period after World War II was a time of expansion for student affairs as a profession, Schwartz (1997) reports that it was not a good period for deans of women. He argues that in the rush to return to normalcy and to reward men returning from the war, the role women had played in the success of the student personnel movement was largely ignored. While offices of the dean of men were often “expanded to become dean for student personnel, dean of students, and vice-presidents for student personnel services” deans of women “were given lesser positions, dismissed, or allowed to retire quietly” (Schwartz, 1997, p. 433).

From 1950 to 1972, the title “dean of students” was the most frequently used title to designate the chief student affairs officer (CSAO). However, it was during this period that a shift to the designation of “vice president” was emerging. By 1972, 18% of the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators member institutions were using the title of vice president to designate their CSAO (Crookston, 1974). The use of the vice president title continued to increase through the 1970s and 1980s becoming the preferred designation of the chief student affairs officer at public universities (Ambler, 1993). While the use of the dean of students title as designating the CSAO fell from favor at public institutions, many public universities retained the title to designate a major student affairs officer who has responsibility for many of the aspects of student life and who reports directly to the CSAO (Ambler, 1993).

Sandeen (1996) reports that the contemporary dean of students is often responsible for several of the traditional student affairs functions, responds to student crises, enforces the institution's community standards, and "responds to the general concerns of students, faculty, staff, parents, and community members" (p. 444). A review of the web sites for National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges member institutions in the Southeast that employ the dean of students title indicate that the common student affairs functions that are supervised by the dean of students include judicial affairs, Greek life, orientation and first-year programs, leadership development, disability services, student organizations and activities, and student government. Other functions that were not as common but were the responsibility of several of the deans of students include withdrawals, parent programs, service learning, international student services, housing and residence life, multicultural affairs, and gender issues.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

Kerlinger (1986) believed that a research design must encompass both the research problem and the plan of investigation necessary to acquire empirical evidence on the problem. While a design does not explain precisely what to do, it implies the direction of observation and analysis. The purpose of this chapter is to present the research questions that guided the study, the research population and sample that was studied, the instrument that was employed, and the statistical analysis that were conducted.

The purpose of this study was to examine the leadership behaviors of deans of students at public research universities in the southeast using Bass and Avolio's (1997) Full Range of Leadership model. The study investigated the relationship between transformational, transactional, and laissez-fair leadership behaviors of the deans and the outcome variables of subordinate satisfaction with the leader, subordinate perception of leadership effectiveness, and subordinate willingness to exert extra effort.

Specifically, this study addressed the following research questions:

1. To what extent do deans of students exhibit transformational, transactional, and laissez-fair leadership behaviors as rated by their subordinates using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short)?
2. Is there a relationship between the transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership behavior of deans of students and their subordinate professional staff members' perception of leader effectiveness as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short)?
3. Is there a relationship between the transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership behavior of deans

- of students and their subordinate professional staff members' satisfaction with their leader as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short)?
4. Is there a relationship between the transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership behavior of deans of students and their subordinate professional staff members' willingness to exert extra effort as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short)?
 5. Is there a relationship between gender and the transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership behavior of deans of students as rated by their subordinates using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short)?

Research Population

The population for this study was student affairs professional staff members supervised by deans of students at public institutions of higher education classified as either Doctoral/Research Universities-Extensive or Doctoral/Research Universities-Intensive in the 2000 Carnegie Classification (Carnegie Foundation, 2000) located in the southeastern states of Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia. The total number of institutions representing this population is 45. Five institutions in this population did not have an equivalent position to a dean of students for the purpose of this study and two institutions had the position vacant at the time of the study. Therefore, 38 institutions were used in the study.

The population for the study was primarily identified through the institutions' web sites and the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators' membership directory. Institutions were contacted through e-mail and through telephone calls from the researcher when information was not available through the institution's web site or the membership directory.

The Instrument

The research instrument utilized in this study was the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5X (Bass & Avolio, 1997). The MLQ was used to collect data regarding the independent variables of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership and the dependent variables of subordinate perception of leader effectiveness, satisfaction with the leader, and willingness to exert extra effort.

The MLQ Form 5X was developed by Bass and Avolio to address the criticisms of an earlier MLQ survey instrument designed by Bass (Bass & Avolio, 1997). Through the use of confirmatory factor analysis, Avolio, Bass and Jung (1995) refined the original MLQ into an instrument that better represented each leadership component within the Full Range of Leadership model. Their findings from the validation and cross validation studies resulted in the selection of the items for the MLQ Form 5X.

The MLQ Form 5X is a 45-item questionnaire using a Likert scale to measure leader behaviors. Thirty-six of the items measure the independent variables of leadership behaviors and nine items measure the dependent variables of outcome factors (Bass & Avolio, 1997). The MLQ measures five transformational leadership components, three transactional leadership components, and one nonleadership component. The components for transformational leadership are: idealized influence-attributed, idealized influence-behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. The components for transactional leadership are: contingent reward, management-by-exception-active and management-by-exception-passive. Laissez-faire leadership is the nonleadership component (Bass & Avolio, 1997). Each of the

leadership components are measured by four interconnected items that are as low in correlation as possible with items measuring the other eight components (Bass & Avolio, 1997). The items that measure the individual leadership components and outcome behaviors are as follows:

Transformational Behaviors:

Idealized Influence-Attributed is measured by items 10, 18, 21, and 25.

Idealized Influence-Behavior is measured by items 6, 14, 23, and 34.

Inspirational Motivation is measured by items 13, 26, 36, and 9.

Intellectual Stimulation is measured by items 2, 8, 30, and 32.

Individual Consideration is measured by items 15, 19, 29, and 31.

Transactional Behaviors:

Contingent Reward is measured by items 1, 11, 16, and 35.

Management-by-Exception (Active) is measured by items 4, 22, 24, and 27.

Management-by-Exception (Passive) is measured by items 3, 12, 17, and 20.

Laissez-Faire (Nonleadership) Behaviors:

Laissez-Faire is measured by items 5, 7, 28, and 33.

Outcome Behaviors:

Willingness to Exert Extra Effort is measured by items 39, 42, and 44.

Leadership Effectiveness is measured by items 37, 40, 43, and 45.

Satisfaction with Leader is measured by items 38 and 41.

The MLQ requires a ninth grade reading ability and takes approximately 15 minutes to complete. The respondents are asked to rate their supervisor, judging how frequently each statement in the item fits the supervisor. Numerical values are given for each of the

item responses. The values are: 0 = Not at all, 1 = Once in a while, 2 = Sometimes, 3 = Fairly often, 4 = Frequently, if not always. A lower score indicates that the leader's behaviors were perceived to be inconsistent with the description of the leadership component and a higher score is indicative of the perception of the presence of behaviors consistent with the leadership component.

Participants were also asked to complete a researcher-developed demographic information sheet. The demographic information sheet requested information on the deans of students' gender, age, educational level, and number of years in current leadership position. It also requested information on respondents' gender, age, educational level, number of years in student affairs, and number of years working with their current dean.

Reliability and Validity

In their instrument manual, *Full Range Leadership Development: Manual for the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*, Bass and Avolio (1997) summarized the results of the tests employed for examining the MLQ 5X's construct validity and reliability. For their study, Bass and Avolio (1997) used a validation sample and a cross-validation sample. The sample studies for both the validation sample and the cross-validation sample were conducted by independent researchers and were based on data generated by subordinates who evaluated their supervisors within a broad range of organizations and at varying levels within the organizations (Bass & Avolio, 1997). Table 3-1 gives a description of the validation samples set and the cross-validation samples set.

The scale scores for both the validation and cross-validation sets of samples are provided by Bass and Avolio (1997) and are presented in Table 3-2. Reliabilities for

Table 3-1 Organizational Samples Used in Validation and Cross Validation Analysis of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Description of Validation Samples		Description of Cross-Validation Samples	
Set	N	Set	N
1. Undergraduate Students (American and Taiwanese)	254	1. Business Organizations in U.S.	215
2. Undergraduate Students (American)	162	2. Political Organization in U.S.	428
3. Nursing Schools in U.S.	45	3. Business Organizations in U.S.	549
4. U.S. Government Research Organization	66	4. Fire Department in U.S.	325
5. Business Organizations in U.S.	457	5. Not-for-Profit Government Organization	189
6. Business Organizations in U.S.	320		
7. College Educators in Nursing School in U.S.	475		
8. U.S. Army Organization	202		
9. Oil Platforms Offshore from Scotland	99		

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each of the leadership factors and the outcome scales range from .74 to .94 for the validation sample and .73 to .93 in the cross validation sample (Bass & Avolio, 1997). The scales' reliabilities are generally high, exceeding standard cut-offs for internal consistency recommended in the literature (Alovio, Bass, & Jung, 1995).

Bass and Avolio (1997) used confirmatory factor analysis to test the convergent and discriminant validity of the MLQ Form 5X scales. Bass and Avolio (1997) state that the confirmatory factor analysis tests were specifically run to determine whether the data collected from the validation and cross-validation sample sets confirmed the nine-factor model proposed by Avolio and Bass (1991). Table 3-3 shows the comparison of the Goodness of Fit (GFI), the Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI), the Root Mean

Square Residuals (RMSR), and the Chi-square test results. The fit measures and the chi-square tests improved as the model progressed from a one-factor to a nine-factor solution

Table 3-2 Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations Among MLQ Factor Scores

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Attributed Charisma	2.56 2.69	.84 .90	.86 .87											
2. Idealized Influence	2.64 2.71	.85 .89	.79 .83	.87 .89										
3. Inspirational Motivation	2.64 2.69	.87 .91	.85 .85	.86 .90	.91 .91									
4. Intellectual Stimulation	2.51 2.50	.86 .86	.76 .75	.84 .84	.85 .85	.90 .88								
5. Individualized Consideration	2.66 2.62	.93 .94	.82 .83	.82 .86	.87 .88	.84 .84	.90 .90							
6. Contingent Reward	2.20 2.04	.89 .94	.68 .51	.69 .58	.73 .62	.70 .60	.75 .62	.87 .86						
7. Management-by-Exception (Active)	1.75 1.71	.77 .81	-.12 -.10	-.03 -.08	-.10 -.05	-.08 -.05	-.12 -.11	.03 .21	.74 .73					
8. Management-by-Exception (Passive)	1.11 1.17	.82 .88	-.54 -.54	-.54 -.59	-.55 -.50	-.52 -.41	-.54 -.51	-.34 -.07	.28 .44	.82 .83				
9. Laissez-Faire	0.89 0.99	.74 .88	-.53 -.57	-.54 -.50	-.51 -.50	-.47 -.40	-.49 -.50	-.29 -.07	.18 .40	.74 .82	.74 .87			
10. Extra Effort	2.60 2.51	1.16 1.14	.68 .71	.69 .75	.73 .78	.69 .75	.74 .82	.62 .63	.03 -.01	-.36 -.36	-.34 -.35	.91 .86		
11. Effectiveness	2.62 2.66	.72 .88	.51 .62	.44 .48	.46 .52	.41 .40	.44 .53	.32 .26	-.14 -.04	-.35 -.41	-.41 -.45	.45 .48	.91 .87	
12. Satisfaction	2.57 2.38	1.28 1.28	.25 .35	.22 .18	.21 .22	.18 .08	.27 .24	.19 .11	.06 .18	-.21 -.17	-.25 -.19	.23 .19	.15 .40	.94 .93

Note. Each factor was rated on the 5-point scale from 0 (not at all) to 4 (frequently, if not always). Alpha coefficients are reported in boldface along the diagonal. First values in each column show correlations from the validation set of samples (N=1,394 after listwise deletion) and second values in each column show correlations from the cross-validation set of samples (N=1,490 after listwise deletion). Reproduced by special permission of the Publisher, MIND GARDEN, Inc., 1690 Woodside Road #202, Redwood City, CA 90461 USA www.mindgarden.com from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire for Research by Bernard M. Bass and Bruce J. Avolio. Copyright 1995, 2000 by Bernard M. Bass and Bruce J. Avolio. All rights reserved. Further reproduction is prohibited without Publisher's written permission.

(Bass & Avolio, 1997). Bass and Avolio (1997) stressed that the Goodness of Fit Index of .91 for the full model exceeded the .90 cut-off criterion recommended in the literature and that the Root Mean Square Residual of .04 of the full model satisfied the criterion cut-off of less than .05 recommended by Joreskog and Sorbom (1989).

Table 3-3 Comparison of Overall Fit Measures Among Several Factor Models

Fit Measure	One-Factor Model	Two-Factor Model	Three-Factor Model	Five-Factor Model	Nine-Factor Model (Full Model)
Chi-Square/df	5674/594 (6859/594)	5260/593 (4258/593)	3529/591 (4229/591)	3341/584 (4126/584)	2394/558 (2967/558)
GFI	.75 (.66)	.77 (.81)	.86 (.81)	.86 (.82)	.91 (.88)
AGFI	.72 (.62)	.74 (.79)	.84 (.79)	.84 (.80)	.89 (.86)
RMSR	.07 (.08)	.08 (.07)	.05 (.07)	.05 (.07)	.04 (.05)

Note. First values based on validation set of samples (N=1,394). Values in parentheses are based on cross-validation set of samples (N=1,490). GFI = Goodness of Fit Index; AGFI = Adjusted GFI; RMSR = Root Mean Square Residual. Reproduced by special permission of the Publisher, MIND GARDEN, Inc., 1690 Woodside Road #202, Redwood City, CA 90461 USA www.mindgarden.com from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire for Research by Bernard M. Bass and Bruce J Avolio. Copyright 1995, 2000 by Bernard M Bass and Bruce J Avolio. All rights reserved. Further reproduction is prohibited without Publisher's written permission.

One of the most comprehensive reviews of the MLQ to date was a meta-analysis conducted by Lowe, Kroeck, and Sivasubramaniam (1996). The researchers looked at approximately 40 studies from a variety of countries, institutions, and organizational levels. They concluded that the MLQ is a valid and reliable measure of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996).

Data Collection

Each dean of students at the institutions involved in the study was sent a letter of introduction from the researcher. The letter explained the study, provided a copy of the MLQ for the dean's review, and provided the dean with the contact information for the researcher and the researcher's academic advisor.

All data was collected via the self-administered MLQ and the researcher-developed demographic information sheet that were mailed to each member of the sample as part of the survey packet. Participants, through the letter of introduction, were assured of confidentiality and anonymity in the final reporting of results.

Survey packets were mailed to the professional staff members within the dean of students office or its equivalent at each of the 38 institutions in the study during the late spring and early summer of 2003. For institutions that had four or fewer professional staff members in the Dean of Students Office, survey packets were sent to each professional staff member. For institutions that had over four professional staff members in their Dean of Students Office, four staff members were randomly selected and the survey packets sent to those four staff members.

The survey packet included a cover letter, an informed consent form, a copy of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5x-Short), a demographic information sheet, and a postage-paid return envelope. Twenty-one days after the initial mailing a duplicate packet containing a reminder letter was sent to all members of the sample who had not returned the survey packet materials. Twenty-four days after the second mailing, a third and final packet was mailed to the remaining non-respondents.

Data Analysis

Research Question 1 examined the degree to which deans of students exhibited transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors. Data collected by MLQ was analyzed using SPSS to compute the mean scores and standard deviations for the leadership scales of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire.

Research questions 2, 3, and 4 employed multiple regression analyses to evaluate the degree of relationship between each dependent variable (willingness to exert extra effort, leadership effectiveness, and satisfaction with the leader) and the multiple independent variables (transformation, transactional, and laissez-faire behaviors). SPSS and SAS statistical software was utilized to run standard multiple regressions with the composite independent variables of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership. Further analyses focusing on the component behaviors that comprise the composite independent variables were conducted using SAS multiple regression for full and reduced models and all-possible subsets.

Research question 5 utilized independent-samples t-tests to examine whether there was a relationship between gender and the perception of transformational leadership behavior, transactional leadership behavior, or laissez-faire leadership behavior.

Human Subjects

All respondents of the study were assured of confidentiality in the handling and reporting of results. No adverse affects were foreseeable by participating or refusing to participate in the study; therefore, the risk to human subjects was considered to be negligible. Approval to proceed with this study was secured through the Institutional Review Board of the University of Florida before participants were contacted.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF DATA

The purpose of the study was to examine the leadership behaviors of deans of students at public research universities in the southeast using Bass and Avolio's (1997) Full Range of Leadership model. The study investigated the relationship between transformational, transactional, and laissez-fair leadership behaviors of the deans and the outcome variables of subordinate satisfaction with the leader, subordinate perception of leadership effectiveness, and subordinate willingness to exert extra effort.

Specifically, this study addressed the following research questions:

1. To what extent do deans of students exhibit transformational, transactional, and laissez-fair leadership behaviors as rated by their subordinates using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short)?
2. Is there a relationship between the transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership behavior of deans of students and their subordinate professional staff members' perception of leader effectiveness as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short)?
3. Is there a relationship between the transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership behavior of deans of students and their subordinate professional staff members' satisfaction with their leader as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short)?
4. Is there a relationship between the transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership behavior of deans of students and their subordinate professional staff members' willingness to exert extra effort as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short)?
5. Is there a relationship between gender and the transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership

behavior of deans of students as rated by their subordinates using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short)?

Survey Responses

The population for this study was student affairs professional staff members supervised by deans of students at public institutions of higher education classified as either Doctoral/Research Universities-Extensive or Doctoral/Research Universities-Intensive in the 2000 Carnegie Classification (Carnegie Foundation, 2000) located in the southeastern states of Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia. The total number of institutions representing this population is 45. Five institutions in this population did not have an equivalent position to a dean of students for the purpose of this study and two institutions had the position vacant at the time of the study. Therefore, 38 institutions were used in the study.

Survey packets were mailed to the professional staff members within the Dean of Students Office or its equivalent at each of the 38 institutions in the study during the late spring and early summer of 2003. For institutions that had four or fewer professional staff members in the Dean of Students Office, survey packets were sent to each professional staff member. For institutions that had over four professional staff members in their Dean of Students Office, four staff members were randomly selected and the survey packets sent to those four staff members.

The survey packet included a cover letter, an informed consent form, a copy of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5x-Short), a demographic information sheet, and a postage-paid return envelope. Twenty-one days after the initial mailing a duplicate packet containing a reminder letter was sent to all members of the

sample who had not returned the survey packet materials. Twenty-four days after the second mailing, a third and final packet was mailed to the remaining non-respondents.

Response Rates

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5x-Short) was distributed as a self-administered survey mailed to 137 professional staff members in the dean of students office at the 38 institutions included in the study. The initial mailing and the two reminder mailings resulted in 96 surveys being returned for a response rate of 70%. Included in the calculation of the 70% response rate were the professional staff members at seven institutions included in the study that did not return surveys for their respective institutions. Therefore, while there were 38 institutions included in the study, the number of deans evaluated was 31.

Demographic Information

The demographic information sheet was designed to obtain information from the respondents on both the dean of students and the respondent in the areas of gender, age, and education level. Information was also collected on the number of years the dean of students had been in the dean position, the number of years the respondent had been in student affairs, and the number of years that the respondent had worked with their current dean. The demographic information sheet can be found in Appendix F.

The age demographic responses were divided into five categories. Table 4-1 presents the distribution of the respondents and deans with respect to age. The majority of the respondents were in the 30's age group category and the majority of the deans were in the 40's age group category. The deans tended to be in their 40's or older and the respondents tended to be in their 40's or younger.

Table 4-1 Summary of Respondents and Deans' Age Distribution

Age Category	20	30	40	50	60
% of Deans ^a	0.00	6.45	51.61	35.48	6.45
% of Respondents ^b	23.95	40.62	25.00	7.92	3.12

Note.

^a*n* = 31. ^b*n* = 96.

The majority of the respondents were female with 57.3% of the sample being female and 42.7% being male. Of the deans, 45.2% were female and 54.8% were male. The respondents and deans' educational levels are presented in Table 4-2. The deans' educational levels were Baccalaureate Degree only (BS/BA) 0.0%, Masters Degree 19.3%, Juris Doctor (JD) 9.7% and Doctorate (PhD/EdD) 71.0%. The respondents' educational levels were Baccalaureate Degree (BS/BA) 10.4%, Masters Degree 67.7%, Juris Doctor (JD) 5.2% and Doctorate (PhD/EdD) 16.6%.

Table 4-2 Summary of Educational Level for Deans and Respondents

	BA/BS	MS/MA	JD	PhD/EdD
Deans %	0.0	19.3	9.7	71.0
Respondents %	10.4	67.7	5.2	16.6

Note.

^a*n* = 31. ^b*n* = 96.

The average length of time the respondents had worked in student affairs was 7.25 years. The average length of time the respondents had been working under the dean they evaluated for the study was 3.8 years. The deans that were evaluated for the study had served in the dean position for an average of 7.6 years.

Research Question 1

Research Question 1 examined the extent to which deans of students exhibit transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors as rated by their

subordinates using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short). Table 4-3 provides the means and standard deviations calculated for each of the leadership behaviors in the Full Range of Leadership model. The higher the mean score for the leadership behavior, the higher the subordinates' perception of the leadership behavior being present in the leadership style of the deans.

The leadership behavior with the highest mean score was inspirational motivation (2.94), indicating that it was the leadership behavior that subordinates perceived most frequently in their dean of students. Among the transformational leadership behaviors, inspirational motivation was followed by idealized influence-attributed (2.82), idealized influence- behavior (2.75), individualized consideration (2.66), and intellectual stimulation (2.61).

The transactional leadership behavior with the highest mean score was contingent reward (2.64). The 2.64 mean score for contingent reward indicates it was perceived more often in deans of students than the transformational leadership behavior of intellectual stimulation, but perceived less often than the transformational leadership behaviors of inspirational motivation, idealized influence-attributed, idealized influence-behavior, and individualized consideration. Among the transactional leadership behaviors, contingent reward was followed by management-by-exception passive (1.24), and management-by-exception-active (1.15).

The least frequently exhibited behavior by deans of students as perceived by the subordinates was laissez-faire leadership. Laissez-faire leadership behavior had a mean score of .91.

Table 4-3 Deans of Students: Leadership Behaviors

Leadership Behavior Type	Behavior	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min.	Max.
Transformational		2.76	.67	0.80	4.00
	Inspirational Motivation	2.94	.66	1.00	4.00
	Idealized Influence Attributed	2.82	.89	0.00	4.00
	Idealized Influence Behavior	2.76	.77	1.00	4.00
	Individualized Consideration	2.66	.69	0.50	4.00
	Intellectual Stimulation	2.61	.78	1.00	4.00
Transactional		1.68	.40	0.67	2.58
	Contingent Reward	2.64	.69	0.75	4.00
	Management-by-Exception Passive	1.24	.84	0.00	3.00
	Management-by-Exception Active	1.15	.76	0.00	3.00
Laissez-Faire	Laissez-Faire	.91	.84	0.00	3.50

Note. $n = 96$.

Research Question 2

Research Question 2 examined whether there was a relationship between the transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership behavior of deans of students and their subordinate professional staff

members' perception of leader effectiveness as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short).

The initial analysis was performed between the dependent variable (leader effectiveness) and the composite independent variables of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership using standard multiple regression analysis. The analysis was performed using both SAS Regression and SPSS Regression. Further analyses were conducted using SAS multiple regression for full and reduced models and all possible subsets.

The full and reduced model regression and the all-possible subsets regression focused on the components in the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) that compose the composite independent variables of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership. The transformational leadership section of the MLQ is composed of five scales of four items each. The component behaviors for transformational leadership are idealized influence-attributed (II-A), idealized influence-behavior (II-B), inspirational motivation (IM), intellectual stimulation (IS), and individualized consideration (IC). The transactional leadership section of the MLQ is composed of three scales of four items each. The component behaviors for transactional leadership are contingent reward (CR), management-by-exception active (MBE-A), and management-by-exception passive (MBE-P). The laissez-faire (LF) leadership section of the MLQ is a single scale with four items.

Assumptions were tested by examining normal probability plots of residuals and scatter diagrams of residuals versus predicted residuals. No violations of normality,

linearity, or homoscedasticity of residuals were detected. In addition, box plots revealed no evidence of outliers.

For the standard multiple regression analysis, no interaction effects between the independent variables of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership were found. The regression analysis revealed that the model significantly predicted leader effectiveness, $F(3,92) = 137.71, p < .0001$. R^2 for the model was .818, and adjusted R^2 was .812, indicating that the model accounts for 81.2% of the variance for leadership effectiveness. Table 4-4 displays the unstandardized regression coefficients (B), the standardized regression coefficients (β), the observed t value (t), the significance level (p), and the semipartial correlations (sr) for each variable.

All three of the independent variables were significant at the $p < .05$ level. For transformational leadership, $\beta = .651, t = 12.22$, and $p = .0001$. For transactional leadership, $\beta = .159, t = 2.99$, and $p = .004$. For laissez-faire leadership, $\beta = -.414, t = -6.85$, and $p = .0001$. Comparing across variables, transformational leadership was the strongest predictor of leader effectiveness, and there was a significant negative relationship between laissez-faire behavior and leadership effectiveness.

Under Bass and Avolio's (1997) Full Range of Leadership model, the dependent variable of leader effectiveness is higher for leaders who are perceived as having higher

Table 4-4 Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Leader Effectiveness

Variable	B	β	t	p	sr
Transformational	.863	.651	12.22	.0001*	.544
Transactional	.351	.159	2.99	.004*	.133
Laissez-Faire	-.441	-.414	-6.85	.0001*	-.305

Note. $n = 96$. $R^2 = .818$.

* $p < .05$.

scores on the transformational leadership component behaviors. Therefore, a multiple regression analysis using full and reduced models was calculated to examine the extent to which the transformational leadership component behaviors added to the predictive accuracy for the dependent variable of leader effectiveness when they are added to the transactional component behaviors and laissez-faire behavior.

The transformational leadership components significantly added to the predictive accuracy for the dependent variable of leadership effectiveness when they were added to the components for transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership behavior. The F -value was calculated at 9.88 with $p < .05$ and R^2 increased by 8% when the transformational components were added to the reduced model. In addition, it was found that of the variance in leader effectiveness that was not associated with transactional and laissez-faire leadership, 57% was associated with the transformational leadership behaviors. Table 4-5 displays the unstandardized regression coefficients (B), the standard errors (SE), the observed t values (t), and the significance levels (p) for the component behaviors in the reduced model and the full model.

The component behaviors were analyzed using an all-possible subsets regression with a R^2 selection method to determine which groups of behaviors were the best predictors of leader effectiveness. Table 4-6 displays the R^2 and the adjusted R^2 for the best one-behavior model through the model that includes all nine behaviors. The highest adjusted R^2 was .851 for both the six-behavior model (II-A, II-B, IC, CR, MBE-A, LF) and the seven-behavior model (II-A, II-B, IM, IC, CR, MBE-A, LF). However, the four-behavior model was close to being as strong as a predictor of leader effectiveness as the six-behavior and seven-behavior models with an adjusted R^2 of .846.

Table 4-5 Summary of Full and Reduced Models Regression for Leader Effectiveness Adding Transformational Leadership Behaviors

<i>Behavior</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Reduced ^a				
CR	.870	.071	12.05	.0001*
MBE-A	.070	.060	1.16	.2488
MBE-P	.059	.077	0.77	.4441
LF	-.487	.077	-6.30	.0001*
Full ^b				
II-A	.276	.077	1.77	.0005*
II-B	.178	.091	1.96	.0532
IM	-.076	.082	-0.94	.3523
IS	.071	.110	0.64	.5214
IC	.101	.106	0.95	.3452
CR	.419	.085	4.92	.0001*
MBE-A	.049	.052	0.94	.3505
MBE-P	.054	.066	0.82	.4122
LF	-.360	.068	-5.29	.0001*

Note.

^a $n = 96$. ^b $n = 96$.

^a $R^2 = .780$. ^b $R^2 = .863$.

* $p < .05$.

Table 4-6 Best Predictor Model by Number of Behaviors for Leader Effectiveness

Number in Model	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Behaviors in Model
1	.696	.693	II-A
2	.776	.771	II-A, CR
3	.841	.835	II-A, CR, LF
4	.853	.846	II-A, II-B, CR, LF
5	.857	.850	II-A, II-B, IC, CR, LF
6	.860	.851	II-A, II-B, IC, CR, MBE-A, LF
7	.862	.851	II-A, II-B, IM, IC, CR, MBE-A, LF
8	.862	.850	II-A, II-B, IM, IC, CR, MBE-A, MBE-P, LF
9	.863	.849	II-A, II-B, IM, IS, IC, CR, MBE-A, MBE-P, LF

Note. $n = 96$.

Research Question 3

Research Question 3 examined whether there was a relationship between the transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership behavior of deans of students and their subordinate professional staff

members' satisfaction with their leader as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short).

The initial analysis was performed between the dependent variable (satisfaction with the leader) and the composite independent variables of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership using standard multiple regression analysis. The analysis was performed using both SAS Regression and SPSS Regression. Further analyses were conducted using SAS multiple regression for full and reduced models and all-possible subsets.

The full and reduced model regression and the all-possible subsets regression focused on the components in the MLQ that compose the composite independent variables of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership. The transformational leadership section of the MLQ is composed of five scales of four items each. The component behaviors for transformational leadership are idealized influence-attributed (II-A), idealized influence-behavior (II-B), inspirational motivation (IM), intellectual stimulation (IS), and individualized consideration (IC). The transactional leadership section of the MLQ is composed of three scales of four items each. The component behaviors for transactional leadership are contingent reward (CR), management-by-exception-active (MBE-A), and management-by-exception passive (MBE-P). The laissez-faire (LF) leadership section of the MLQ is a single scale with four items.

Assumptions were tested by examining normal probability plots of residuals and scatter diagrams of residuals versus predicted residuals. No violations of normality,

linearity, or homoscedasticity of residuals were detected. In addition, box plots revealed no evidence of outliers.

For the standard multiple regression analysis, no interaction effects between the independent variables of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership were found. The regression analysis revealed that the model significantly predicted satisfaction with the leader, $F(3,92) = 91.757, p < .0001$. R^2 for the model was .750, and adjusted R^2 was .741, indicating that the model accounts for 74.1% of the variance for satisfaction with the leader. Table 4-7 displays the unstandardized regression coefficients (B), the standardized regression coefficients (β), the observed t value (t), the significance level (p), and the semipartial correlation (sr) for each variable.

The independent variables of transformational leadership and laissez-faire leadership were significant at the $p < .05$ level. For transformational leadership, $\beta = .700$, $t = 11.22$, and $p = .001$. For laissez-faire, $\beta = -.283$, $t = -3.99$, and $p = .0001$. Transactional leadership was not significant at the $p < .05$ level with $\beta = .052$, $t = 0.83$, and $p = .410$. Comparing across variables, transformational leadership was the strongest predictor of leader effectiveness, and there was a significant negative relationship between laissez-faire behavior and leadership effectiveness.

Under Bass and Avolio's (1997) Full Range of Leadership model, the dependent variable of satisfaction with the leader is higher for leaders who are perceived as having

Table 4-7 Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Satisfaction with the Leader

Variable	B	β	t	p	sr
Transformational	.923	.700	11.22	.0001*	.585
Transactional	.113	.052	.83	.410	.043
Laissez-Faire	-.299	-.283	-3.99	.0001*	-.208

Note. $n = 96$. $R^2 = .750$.

* $p < .05$.

higher scores on the transformational leadership component behaviors. Therefore, a multiple regression analysis using full and reduced models was calculated to examine the extent to which the transformational leadership component behaviors added to the predictive accuracy for the dependent variable of satisfaction with the leader when they were added to the transactional component behaviors and laissez-faire behavior.

The transformational leadership components significantly added to the predictive accuracy for the dependent variable of satisfaction with the leader when they were added to the components for transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership behavior. The F-value was calculated at 13.69 with $p < .05$ and R^2 increased by 15.7% when the transformational components were added to the reduced model. In addition, it was found that of the variance in satisfaction with the leader that was not associated with transactional and laissez-faire leadership, 79.6% was associated with the transformational leadership behaviors. Table 4-8 displays the unstandardized regression coefficients (B), the standard errors (SE), the observed t values (t), and the significance levels (p) for the component behaviors in the reduced model and the full model.

The component behaviors were analyzed using an all-possible subsets regression with a R^2 selection method to determine which groups of behaviors were the best predictors of satisfaction with the leader. Table 4-9 displays the R^2 and the adjusted R^2 for the best one-behavior model through the model that includes all nine behaviors. The highest adjusted R^2 was .849 for the full nine-behavior model. The second highest adjusted R^2 was .789 for both the four-behavior (II-A, II-B, CR, LF) and five-behavior (II-A, II-B, IM, CR, LF) models.

Table 4-8 Summary of Full and Reduced Models Regression for Satisfaction with the Leader Adding Transformational Leadership Behaviors

<i>Behavior</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Reduced ^a				
CR	.760	.089	8.54	.0001*
MBE-A	-.022	.076	-0.29	.7713
MBE-P	.052	.097	0.53	.5974
LF	-.420	.098	-4.31	.0001*
Full ^b				
II-A	.467	.091	5.11	.0001*
II-B	.216	.109	1.99	.0496*
IM	-.104	.097	-1.07	.2875
IS	.107	.131	0.82	.4159
IC	-.002	.127	-0.01	.9895
CR	.204	.102	2.00	.0486*
MBE-A	-.035	.062	-0.56	.5739
MBE-P	.034	.079	0.43	.6671
LF	-.235	.081	-2.89	.0048*

Note.

^a $n = 96$. ^b $n = 96$.

^a $R^2 = .645$. ^b $R^2 = .802$.

* $p < .05$.

Table 4-9 Best Predictor Model by Number of Behaviors for Satisfaction with the Leader

Number in Model	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Behaviors in Model
1	.722	.719	II-A
2	.757	.752	II-A, LF
3	.785	.778	II-A, II-B, LF
4	.798	.789	II-A, II-B, CR, LF
5	.800	.789	II-A, II-B, IM, CR, LF
6	.801	.788	II-A, II-B, IM, IS, CR, LF
7	.802	.786	II-A, II-B, IM, IS, CR, MBE-A, LF
8	.802	.784	II-A, II-B, IM, IS, CR, MBE-A, MBE-P, LF
9	.863	.849	II-A, II-B, IM, IS, IC, CR, MBE-A, MBE-P, LF

Note. $n = 96$.

Research Question 4

Research Question 4 examined whether there was a relationship between the transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership behavior of deans of students and their subordinate professional staff

members' willingness to exert extra effort as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short).

The initial analysis was performed between the dependent variable (willingness to exert extra effort) and the composite independent variables of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership using standard multiple regression analysis. The analysis was performed using both SAS Regression and SPSS Regression. Further analyses were conducted using SAS multiple regression for full and reduced models and all possible subsets.

The full and reduced model regression and the all possible subsets regression focused on the components in the MLQ that compose the composite independent variables of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership. The transformational leadership section of the MLQ is composed of five scales of four items each. The component behaviors for transformational leadership are idealized influence-attributed (II-A), idealized influence-behavior (II-B), inspirational motivation (IM), intellectual stimulation (IS), and individualized consideration (IC). The transactional leadership section of the MLQ is composed of three scales of four items each. The component behaviors for transactional leadership are contingent reward (CR), management-by-exception active (MBE-A), and management-by-exception passive (MBE-P). The laissez-faire (LF) leadership section of the MLQ is a single scale with four items.

Assumptions were tested by examining normal probability plots of residuals and scatter diagrams of residuals versus predicted residuals. No violations of normality,

linearity, or homoscedasticity of residuals were detected. In addition, box plots revealed no evidence of outliers.

For the standard multiple regression analysis, an interaction effect between the independent variables transformational leadership and transactional leadership was found to be significant at the $p < .05$ level ($p = .0114$, $t = -2.58$). However, adding the interaction term to the model only increased predictability of extra effort by 1.7%; therefore, the interaction term was excluded from the model for the purposes of this study. No other interaction effects between the independent variables were significant.

The regression analysis revealed that the model significantly predicted willingness to exert extra effort, $F(3,92) = 88.947$, $p < .0001$. R^2 for the model was .744, and adjusted R^2 was .735, indicating that the model accounts for 73.5% of the variance for willingness to exert extra effort. Table 4-10 displays the unstandardized regression coefficients (B), the standardized regression coefficients (β), the observed t value (t), the significance level (p), and the semipartial correlation (sr) for each variable.

All three of the independent variables were significant at the $p < .05$ level. For transformational leadership, $\beta = .699$, $t = 11.07$, and $p = .0001$. For transactional leadership, $\beta = .158$, $t = 2.50$, and $p = .014$. For laissez-faire leadership, $\beta = -.283$, $t = -3.94$, and $p = .0002$. Comparing across variables, transformational leadership was the strongest predictor of willingness to exert extra effort, and there was a significant negative relationship between laissez-faire behavior and willingness to exert extra effort. Under Bass and Avolio's (1997) Full Range of Leadership model, the dependent variable of willingness to exert extra effort is higher for leaders who are perceived as having higher scores on the transformational leadership component behaviors. Therefore, a

Table 4-10 Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Willingness to Exert Extra Effort

Variable	B	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>sr</i>
Transformational	1.029	.699	11.07	.0001*	.584
Transactional	.387	.158	2.50	.014*	.132
Laissez-Faire	-.334	-.283	-3.94	.0002*	-.208

Note. *n* = 96. R^2 = .744.

**p* < .05.

multiple regression analysis using full and reduced models was calculated to examine the extent to which the transformational leadership component behaviors added to the predictive accuracy for the dependent variable of willingness to exert extra effort when they are added to the transactional component behaviors and laissez-faire behavior.

The transformational leadership components significantly added to the predictive accuracy for the dependent variable of willingness to exert extra effort when they were added to the components for transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership behavior. The F-value was calculated at 13.32 with $p < .05$ and R^2 increased by 16.3% when the transformational scales were added to the reduced model. In addition, it was found that of the variance in willingness to exert extra effort that was not associated with transactional and laissez-faire leadership, 77.5% was associated with the transformational leadership behaviors. Table 4-11 displays the unstandardized regression coefficients (B), the standard errors (SE), the observed *t* values (*t*), and the significance levels (*p*) for the component behaviors in the reduced model and the full model.

The component behaviors were analyzed using an all-possible subsets regression with a R^2 selection method to determine which groups of behaviors were the best predictors of willingness to exert extra effort. Table 4-12 displays the R^2 and the adjusted R^2 for the best one-behavior model through the model that includes all nine behaviors.

Table 4-11 Summary of Full and Reduced Models Regression for Willingness to Exert Extra Effort Adding Transformational Leadership Behaviors

<i>Behavior</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Reduced ^a				
CR	.918	.102	9.01	.0001*
MBE-A	.071	.087	0.81	.4201
MBE-P	.146	.112	1.30	.1953
LF	-.478	.112	-4.28	.0001*
Full ^b				
II-A	.228	.105	2.16	.0334*
II-B	.275	.125	2.20	.0305*
IM	-.185	.112	-1.65	.1028
IS	.086	.152	0.56	.5736
IC	.477	.146	3.26	.0016*
CR	.240	.117	2.05	.0433*
MBE-A	-.006	.072	-0.09	.9297
MBE-P	.155	.091	1.71	.0914
LF	-.319	.094	-3.41	.0010*

Note.

^a $n = 96$. ^b $n = 96$.

^a $R^2 = .627$. ^b $R^2 = .790$.

* $p < .05$.

The highest adjusted R^2 was .772 for the seven-behavior model (II-A, II-B, IM, IC, CR, MBE-P, LF). However, the adjusted R^2 for the five-behavior model (II-A, II-B, IC, CR, LF) of .763 and the adjusted R^2 for the six-behavior model (II-A, II-B, IM, IC, CR, LF) of .768 are within 1% of the seven-behavior adjusted R^2 .

Table 4-12 Best Predictor Model by Number of Behaviors for Willingness to Exert Extra Effort

Number in Model	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Behaviors in Model
1	.654	.650	IC
2	.727	.721	II-A, IC
3	.753	.745	II-A, IC, LF
4	.768	.757	II-A, II-B, IC, LF
5	.776	.763	II-A, II-B, IC, CR, LF
6	.782	.768	II-A, II-B, IM, IC, CR, LF
7	.789	.772	II-A, II-B, IM, IC, CR, MBE-P, LF
8	.790	.770	II-A, II-B, IM, IS, IC, CR, MBE-P, LF
9	.790	.768	II-A, II-B, IM, IS, IC, CR, MBE-A, MBE-P, LF

Note. $n = 96$.

Research Question 5

Research Question 5 examined whether there was a relationship between gender and transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership behavior of deans of students as rated by their subordinates using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short).

The analysis was completed by evaluating each of the composite leadership behaviors (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) separately. For each leadership behavior, independent-samples t-tests using SPSS were run: (a) with the test variable being the overall mean score for the leadership behavior and the grouping variable being gender of participant; (b) with the test variable being the mean score for the leadership behavior and the grouping variable being the gender of the dean; (c) with the test variable being the mean score for male deans only and the grouping variable being gender of participant; and (d) with the test variable being the mean score for female deans only and the grouping variable being gender of the participant.

The t-tests did not reveal any significant differences in how deans' leadership behaviors were perceived depending on either the deans' gender or on the participants' gender. For transformational leadership, there was no significant difference in the mean score for all deans as perceived by male participants ($M = 2.75$, $SD = .616$) and female participants ($M = 2.76$, $SD = .716$) with $t(94) = -0.080$, and $p = .936$. There was no significant difference between the mean scores for male deans ($M = 2.69$, $SD = .654$) and female deans ($M = 2.84$, $SD = .690$) as perceived by all participants with $t(94) = -1.087$, and $p = .280$. There was no significant difference between the mean scores for male deans ($M = 2.61$, $SD = .726$) and female deans ($M = 2.92$, $SD = .684$) as perceived by

female participants with $t(53) = -1.633$, and $p = .108$. There was no significant difference between the mean scores for male deans ($M = 2.78$, $SD = .567$) and female deans ($M = 2.71$, $SD = .703$) as perceived by male participants with $t(39) = 0.380$, and $p = .706$. There was no significant difference in the mean scores for female deans as perceived by male participants ($M = 2.71$, $SD = .703$) and female participants ($M = 2.92$, $SD = .684$) with $t(42) = -0.969$, and $p = .338$. There was no significant difference in the mean scores for male deans as perceived by male participants ($M = 2.78$, $SD = .567$) and female participants ($M = 2.61$, $SD = .726$) with $t(50) = 0.971$, and $p = .336$.

For transactional leadership, there was no significant difference in the mean score for all deans as perceived by male participants ($M = 1.70$, $SD = .410$) and female participants ($M = 1.67$, $SD = .402$) with $t(94) = 0.382$, and $p = .703$. There was no significant difference between the mean scores for male deans ($M = 1.74$, $SD = .334$) and female deans ($M = 1.60$, $SD = .466$) as perceived by all participants with $t(94) = 1.637$, and $p = .106$. There was no significant difference between the mean scores for male deans ($M = 1.75$, $SD = .296$) and female deans ($M = 1.58$, $SD = .475$) as perceived by female participants with $t(53) = 1.56$, and $p = .126$. There was no significant difference between the mean scores for male deans ($M = 1.73$, $SD = .377$) and female deans ($M = 1.64$, $SD = .464$) as perceived by male participants with $t(39) = .702$, and $p = .487$. There was no significant difference in the mean scores for female deans as perceived by male participants ($M = 1.64$, $SD = .464$) and female participants ($M = 1.58$, $SD = .475$) with $t(42) = 0.388$, and $p = .700$. There was no significant difference in the mean scores for male deans as perceived by male participants ($M = 1.73$, $SD = .376$) and female participants ($M = 1.75$, $SD = .296$) with $t(50) = 0.178$, and $p = .859$.

For laissez-faire leadership, there was no significant difference in the mean score for all deans as perceived by male participants ($M = .884$, $SD = .806$) and female participants ($M = .932$, $SD = .867$) with $t(94) = -0.275$, and $p = .784$. There was no significant difference between the mean scores for male deans ($M = .942$, $SD = .847$) and female deans ($M = .875$, $SD = .834$) as perceived by all participants with $t(94) = 0.391$, and $p = .697$. There was no significant difference between the mean scores for male deans ($M = 1.14$, $SD = .929$) and female deans ($M = .732$, $SD = .767$) as perceived by female participants with $t(53) = 1.774$, and $p = .082$. There was no significant difference between the mean scores for male deans ($M = .730$, $SD = .707$) and female deans ($M = 1.125$, $SD = .913$) as perceived by male participants with $t(39) = -1.557$, and $p = .128$. There was no significant difference in the mean scores for female deans as perceived by male participants ($M = 1.125$, $SD = .913$) and female participants ($M = .732$, $SD = .766$) with $t(42) = 1.525$, and $p = .135$. There was no significant difference in the mean scores for male deans as perceived by male participants ($M = .730$, $SD = .707$) and female participants ($M = 1.14$, $SD = .929$) with $t(50) = -1.776$, and $p = .082$.

The findings imply that there is no significant relationship between gender and the transformational leadership behavior, transactional leadership behavior, or laissez-faire leadership of deans of students as perceived by their professional staff members.

Summary

A total of 137 surveys were mailed to professional staff members working in a dean of students office at 38 public institutions of higher education classified as either Doctoral/Research Universities-Extensive or Doctoral/Research Universities-Intensive in the 2000 Carnegie Classification (Carnegie Foundation, 2000) located in the southeastern

states of Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia. Of the 137 professional staff members surveyed, 96 returned completed surveys resulting in a response rate of 70%.

The data provided information on the extent to which deans of students exhibited transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors as perceived by the professional staff members in the deans' office. Multiple regression analyses were used to examine the relationship between the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors of deans of students and their subordinate professional staff members' perception of leader effectiveness, satisfaction with the leader, and willingness to exert extra effort. The data was also evaluated to examine whether there was a relationship between gender and transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership behavior of deans of students.

Chapter 5 follows with a summary of the study and a discussion of the findings. Suggestions for future research are also presented.

CHAPTER 5 SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents a summary and discussion of the findings, implications for student affairs, and suggestions for future research. The purpose of the study was to examine the leadership behaviors of deans of students at public research universities in the southeast using Bass and Avolio's (1997) Full Range of Leadership model. The study investigated the relationship between transformational, transactional, and laissez-fair leadership behaviors of the deans and the outcome variables of subordinate satisfaction with the leader, subordinate perception of leadership effectiveness, and subordinate willingness to exert extra effort.

Specifically, this study addressed the following research questions:

1. To what extent do deans of students exhibit transformational, transactional, and laissez-fair leadership behaviors as rated by their subordinates using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short)?
2. Is there a relationship between the transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership behavior of deans of students and their subordinate professional staff members' perception of leader effectiveness as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short)?
3. Is there a relationship between the transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership behavior of deans of students and their subordinate professional staff members' satisfaction with their leader as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short)?
4. Is there a relationship between the transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership behavior of deans of students and their subordinate professional staff members' willingness to exert

extra effort as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short)?

5. Is there a relationship between gender and the transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership behavior of deans of students as rated by their subordinates using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short)?

The study examined the leadership behaviors of deans of students at public institutions of higher education classified as either Doctoral/Research Universities-Extensive or Doctoral/Research Universities-Intensive in the 2000 Carnegie Classification (Carnegie Foundation, 2000) located in the southeastern states of Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia. The total number of institutions representing this population is 45. Five institutions in this population did not have an equivalent position to a dean of students for the purpose of this study and two institutions had the position vacant at the time of the study. Therefore, 38 institutions were used in the study.

The study utilized Bass and Avolio's (1995) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short) to assess transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors of deans of students as perceived by their professional staff member subordinates. A researcher-developed demographic sheet was used to obtain the age, educational level, and gender of the participants and of the deans that were evaluated. Statistical analyses were conducted using both SPSS and SAS statistical software.

Summary and Discussion of Findings

This study assessed the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors of deans of students using Bass and Avolio's (1997) Full Range of

Leadership model. According to the Full Range of Leadership model, every leader displays each of the leadership behaviors to some degree (Bass, 1998). However, the leader with an optimal profile infrequently displays laissez-faire leadership and displays successively higher frequencies of the transactional behaviors of management-by-exception (passive), management-by-exception (active), and contingent reward. The optimal leader profile displays the five transformational leadership behaviors of idealized influence-attributed, idealized influence-behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration the most frequently (Bass, 1998).

Under the Full Range of Leadership model, the hierarchy of correlations of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) components with the outcome variables of leader effectiveness, satisfaction with the leader, and willingness to exert extra effort is typically transformational behaviors > contingent reward > management-by-exception active > management-by-exception passive > laissez-faire leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1997). In addition, Bass (1985, 1998) states that transformational leadership augments transactional leadership in predicting leadership behavior effects on the outcome variables. Specifically, the augmentation effect states that transformational leadership behaviors should account for unique variance in subordinates' ratings of the outcome variables over and above that accounted for by transactional leadership (Bass, 1998).

The results of this study produced a profile of leadership behaviors for deans of students that was similar to, but did not match exactly, Bass and Avolio's (1997) optimal leader profile. The results provide evidence of the augmentation effect of transformational leadership behaviors on subordinate ratings of the outcome variables and provide no evidence of a relationship between gender and rating of deans of students'

leadership behaviors. Conclusions drawn from the results of this study are discussed in relation to the research questions that served as the basis for the study.

Leadership Behaviors Exhibited by Deans of Students

The findings suggest that deans of students at public research universities in the southeast, as a group, exhibited transformational behaviors more frequently than transactional behaviors, which they displayed more frequently than laissez-faire leadership behaviors. The mean scores for deans of students' leadership behavior presented in Table 4-3 indicate that deans of students exhibited transformational leadership "fairly often" ($M = 2.76$, $SD = .67$), transactional leadership "sometimes" ($M = 1.68$, $SD = .40$), and laissez-faire leadership "once in a while" ($M = 0.91$, $SD = .84$). Therefore, the composite independent variables followed the Full Range of Leadership model optimal profile which calls for transformational leadership behaviors to be displayed more frequently than transactional leadership behaviors, which should be displayed more frequently than laissez-faire leadership behavior (Bass & Avolio, 1997). However, the mean scores for the component behaviors of the composite independent variables did not exactly match the optimal profile.

The mean scores for the component behaviors of the composite independent variables indicate that one of the transactional behaviors, contingent reward ($M = 2.64$, $SD = .69$), was exhibited more than the transformational behavior of intellectual stimulation ($M = 2.61$, $SD = .78$). While this finding prevents an exact match with the optimal leadership profile proposed by Bass and Avolio (1997), it is not necessarily a negative finding. Research on transformational leadership indicates that the frequency with which transformational and transactional leadership behaviors emerge and are

effective can depend to some extent on the work environment, the organization, the goals and tasks involved, and the distribution of power between the leaders and followers (Bass, 1998).

Among the several factors that could have contributed to the relatively high mean score for contingent reward is the possible stability of the deans' offices due to the deans' length of time in the dean position. For this study, the average number of years the deans of students had served in their position was 7.6 years. Therefore, due to their years of experience in the dean position, the environment faced by the deans was a fairly predictable and stable environment. Bass (1998) states that transactional leadership is likely to emerge more frequently and be relatively effective when leaders are engaged in a stable and predictable environment. What makes the dean of students position unique, is that while it may operate in a stable and predictable environment, it often deals with conditions of crisis and uncertainty which creates conditions that research indicates makes the emergence of transformational leadership behaviors more likely (Bass, 1998). Therefore, the high mean scores for the transformational leadership behaviors as well as the transactional leadership behavior of contingent reward may be a reflection of the environment within which the deans of students serve as leaders.

Additionally, the nature of the leader-subordinate relationship within a dean of students office may provide some insight to the relatively high contingent reward mean score. Bass (1998) speculates that in situations where the subordinate has power and information, transactional leadership will emerge more frequently than in situations where the leader retains most of the power and information. Sandeen (1996) states that the dean of students often oversees several of the common functions found in a student

affairs division. These functions include units such as financial aid, services for students with disabilities, and judicial affairs, which require the professional staff members within the unit to have a high degree of knowledge and expertise in that particular area. Therefore, a dean of students at a public research institution is typically supervising individuals that have power and information within a specific area of responsibility.

Leader Effectiveness as Measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

The initial analysis for examining whether there was a relationship between the transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership behavior of deans of students and their subordinate professional staff members' perception of leader effectiveness as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short) was done using SAS and SPSS standard regression. The analysis revealed that the model significantly predicted leader effectiveness with the composite independent variables accounting for 81.2% of the variance for leadership effectiveness. For leader effectiveness, all three of the variables were significant at the $p < .05$ level. However, transformational leadership was the strongest predictor of leader effectiveness with a standardized regression coefficient of .651 compared to a standardized regression coefficient for transactional leadership of .159. Therefore, the composite variable of transformational leadership was a stronger contributor to the model in predicting leader effectiveness than the composite variable of transactional leadership.

There was a significant negative relationship between laissez-faire behavior and leadership effectiveness with laissez-faire leadership having a standardized regression coefficient of -.414 and a semipartial correlation of -.305. This indicates that deans who frequently exhibit laissez-faire leadership behaviors are more likely to be perceived as

ineffective by their professional staff members than dean's that rarely display such behavior.

Further analyses were performed on the outcome variable of leader effectiveness using SAS full and reduced model regression and SAS all possible subsets regression. These analyses used the component behaviors of transformational and transactional leadership to examine which component behaviors were having the strongest influence on predicting leader effectiveness. While the full and reduced model regression did find that the transformational leadership components significantly added to the predictive accuracy of leader effectiveness, the only transformational leadership behavior component that was found to be significant in the full model at the $p < .05$ level, was Idealized Influence Attributed. The transactional leadership behavior of contingent reward was also significant at the $p < .05$ level, as was laissez-faire leadership.

The significant predictive value of idealized influence-attributed and contingent reward was also seen in the all-possible subsets regression. For the one-behavior model, idealized influence-attributed was the best predictor of leader effectiveness with an adjusted R^2 of .693. For the two-behavior model, idealized influence-attributed and contingent reward were the best predictors of leader effectiveness with an adjusted R^2 of .771.

The findings of the full and reduced model regression and the all-possible subsets indicate that, for the participants in this study, the transactional behavior of contingent reward was a stronger predictor of leader effectiveness than several of the transformational leadership component behaviors. This finding is not altogether unexpected since Bass (1985, 1998) states that in general the best leaders are both

transformational and transactional, and that contingent reward behavior plays an important role in effective leadership. However, it is not what the Full Range of Leadership model would have predicted and it runs counter to much of the research on the Full Range of Leadership model (Bass, 1998; Waldman, Bass, & Yammarino, 1990; Howell & Avolio, 1993).

The findings on contingent reward suggest that there is something about the nature of the work within a dean of students office that supports the transactional behavior of contingent reward being a fairly strong predictor of leader effectiveness. Avolio, Bass, and Jung (1999) speculated that contingent reward could be the foundation through which leaders build trust and structure the professional development expectations of their followers. Studies that examined factors contributing to attrition in student affairs work found that the work is often associated with long hours and stressful conditions and that professional staff members are often dissatisfied with professional development opportunities (Barr, 1990; Carpenter, 1990; Bender, 1980). Therefore, one possible reason that contingent reward emerged as a stronger predictor of leader effectiveness than expected is that it is effective in developing trust in a stressful work environment and in clarifying professional development opportunities for professional staff members within a dean of students office.

Satisfaction with the Leader as Measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

The initial analysis for examining whether there was a relationship between the transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership behavior of deans of students and their subordinate professional staff members' perception of satisfaction with the leader as measured by the Multifactor

Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short) was done using SAS and SPSS standard regression.

The analysis revealed that the model significantly predicted satisfaction with the leader with composite independent variables accounting for 74.1% of the variance for satisfaction with the leader. The independent variables of transformational leadership and laissez-faire leadership were significant at the $p < .05$ level. The independent variable of transactional leadership was not significant at the $p < .05$ level. Transformational leadership was the strongest predictor of satisfaction with the leader with a standardized regression coefficient of .700.

There was a significant negative relationship between laissez-faire behavior and satisfaction with the leader with laissez-faire leadership having a standardized regression coefficient of -.283. This indicates that professional staff members who perceive their dean as frequently exhibiting laissez-faire leadership behaviors are less likely to be satisfied with their dean as a leader.

Further analyses were performed on the outcome variable of satisfaction with the leader using SAS full and reduced model regression and SAS all possible subsets regression. These analyses used the component behaviors of transformational and transactional leadership to examine which component behaviors were having the strongest influence on predicting satisfaction with the leader. The full and reduced model regression found that the transformational leadership components significantly added to the predictive accuracy of satisfaction with the leader. The transformational leadership behavior components that were found to be significant in the full model at the $p < .05$ level, were idealized influence-attributed and idealized influence-behavior. The

transactional leadership behavior of contingent reward was also significant at the $p < .05$ level, as was laissez-faire leadership.

The significant predictive value of idealized influence-attributed, idealized influence-behavior, contingent reward, and laissez-faire leadership was seen in the in the all-possible subsets regression. For the four-behavior model these components were the best predictor of satisfaction with the leader with an adjusted R^2 of .789. The only model with a higher adjusted R^2 was the full nine-behavior model. For the one-behavior model, idealized influence-attributed was the best predictor of satisfaction with the leader with an adjusted R^2 of .719. For the two-behavior model, idealized influence-attributed and laissez-faire behavior were the best predictors of satisfaction with the leader with an adjusted R^2 of .752. Idealized influence-attributed, idealized influence-behavior, and laissez-faire comprised the best three-behavior model with an R^2 of .778.

The findings of the full and reduced model regression and the all-possible subsets regression indicate that for the outcome variable of satisfaction with the leader, the results were closer to what the Full Range of Leadership model would predict than the findings for leader effectiveness. The transactional behavior of contingent reward was found to be a significant predictor, but it was not as strong as predictor as it was for leader effectiveness. The transformational leadership behaviors of idealized influence-attributed and idealized influence-behavior, were stronger predictors than contingent reward and for the standard multiple regression with the composite independent variables, transactional leadership was not a significant predictor.

The strong predictive value of the idealized influence components of transformational leadership for satisfaction with the leader is consistent with Avolio,

Bass, and Jung's (1999) findings on the component behaviors of the Full Range of Leadership model. Idealized influence is a charismatic type of leadership that builds followers' identification with the leader and the leader's vision. It is characterized by the leader establishing himself or herself as role model through exhibiting high ethical standards and it energizes followers as well as providing them with a clear sense of purpose (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999).

Willingness to Exert Extra Effort as Measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

The initial analysis for examining whether there was a relationship between the transformational leadership behavior, the transactional leadership behavior, or the laissez-faire leadership behavior of deans of students and their subordinate professional staff members' willingness to exert extra effort as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5X-Short) was done using SAS and SPSS standard regression. The analysis revealed that the model significantly predicted willingness to exert extra effort with the composite independent variables accounting for 73.5% of the variance for willingness to exert extra effort. All three of the independent variables were significant at the $p < .05$ level. However, transformational leadership was the strongest predictor of willingness to exert extra effort with a standardized regression coefficient of .699 compared to a standardized regression coefficient for transactional leadership of .158. Therefore, the composite variable of transformational leadership is a stronger contributor to the model in predicting willingness to exert extra effort than the composite variable of transactional leadership.

There was a significant negative relationship between laissez-faire behavior and willingness to exert extra effort with laissez-faire leadership having a standardized

regression coefficient of $-.283$ and a semipartial correlation of $-.208$. This indicates that deans who frequently exhibit laissez-faire leadership behaviors are less likely to have subordinates that are willing to exert extra effort than deans that rarely display such behavior.

Further analyses were performed on the outcome variable of willingness to exert extra effort using SAS full and reduced model regression and SAS all possible subsets regression. These analyses used the component behaviors of transformational and transactional leadership to examine which component behaviors were having the strongest influence on predicting subordinate willingness to exert extra effort. The full and reduced model regression did find that the transformational leadership components significantly added to the predictive accuracy for willingness to exert extra effort. Adding the transformational components to the model increased R^2 by 16.3%, and of the variance in willingness to exert extra effort that was not associated with transactional and laissez-faire leadership, 77.5% was associated with the transformational leadership behaviors. The transformational leadership behavior components that were found to be significant in the full model at the $p < .05$ level, were idealized influence-attributed, idealized influence-behavior, and individualized consideration. The transactional leadership behavior of contingent reward was also significant at the $p < .05$ level, as was laissez-faire leadership.

The predictive value of individualized consideration, idealized influence-attributed, idealized influence-behavior, contingent reward, and laissez-faire was seen in the all-possible subsets regression. For the five-behavior model, these components were the best predictors of willingness to exert extra effort with an adjusted R^2 of .763. The

best one-behavior model was individual consideration with an adjusted R^2 of .650. The best two-behavior model was individual consideration and idealized influence-attributed with an adjusted R^2 of .721. The best three-behavior model was individual consideration, idealized influence-attributed, and laissez-faire with an adjusted R^2 of .745. The best four-behavior model was individual consideration, idealized influence-attributed, laissez-faire, and contingent reward with an adjusted R^2 of .757.

The full and reduced model regression and the all-possible subsets regression indicate that individual consideration was the strongest predictor of professional staff members' willingness to exert extra effort. Bass (1985) discussed individualized consideration in terms of the leader continuously assisting followers in developing the followers' full potential and the leader focusing on the needs of each follower as an individual. Therefore, although individualized consideration was not found as a significant predictor of the other outcome variables, it is consistent with the Full Range of Leadership model that it would serve as a significant predictor for willingness to exert extra effort.

Gender and Perception of Leadership Style

This study utilized independent samples t-test in examining how deans' leadership behaviors were perceived depending on either the dean's gender or the participant's gender. The findings indicate that there was no significant difference in how male and female deans of students were rated overall by their professional staff members and that there was no significant difference in the way male and female professional staff members rated their deans. These findings are consistent with those of Maher (1997) that

found there were no differences between men and women leaders in displaying transformational behaviors.

Other studies have found that women tend to be more transformational than their male counterparts (Bass, 1999). Bass (1999) speculated that the findings from studies that found women tend to be more transformational examined organizations dominated by males. In these situations, women may have had to be better leaders than their male counterparts to attain the same leadership positions. Bass (1999) stated that more studies needed to be done to examine what happens when women are in the majority. For this study, female deans were a slight majority at 53.9%. Therefore, this study may indicate that the finding of previous research that females are more transformational does not hold true when women are in the majority.

Implications for Student Affairs

The results of this study suggest that professional staff members working within a dean of students office, or its equivalent, are more willing to exert extra effort, have higher levels of satisfaction with the dean of students, and view the dean's leadership as more effective when the dean utilizes transformational leadership behaviors more frequently than transactional leadership behaviors. While the study may not be entirely conclusive, the results are consistent with the theoretical prediction of Bass and Avolio's (1997) Full Range of Leadership model. The model predicts that leaders who are more transformational and less transactional are more effective as leaders and more satisfying to their followers (Bass & Avolio, 1997). Where the results differ from the theoretical prediction of the model is on the predictive value of the transactional behavior of contingent reward. The findings indicate that contingent reward is a stronger predictor of

the outcome variables of leader effectiveness, willingness to exert extra effort, and satisfaction with the leader than the model would have predicted.

The results have implications for student affairs since using effective leadership practices improves the work experience of subordinates (Daft, 1999; Fiedler, 1974; Hersey & Blanchard, 1988; Nahavandi, 1997; Seltzer & Bass, 1990; Stogdill, 1974). Employee satisfaction has been found to be a key indicator of the total quality of an organization, and low employee moral negatively impacts many areas of an organization (Tuttle, 1994). Malaney and Osit (1998) indicated that low student affairs staff moral will spill over into the staff's work with students, producing student dissatisfaction with the student affairs staff. Since professional student affair staff members within a dean of students office are often on the front lines, interacting with students on a daily basis, their satisfaction with their dean is a key variable for providing high quality services to students.

Deans of students' professional staff members' willingness to exert extra effort is also a key component of an effective dean of students office. Long hours and stressful conditions are common characteristics of student affairs work (Barr, 1990; Carpenter, 1990). Professional staff members who are willing to exert extra effort are more likely to effectively meet the challenges associated with student affairs work and increase the organizational quality of the office. Having professional staff members willing to exert extra effort is also important to the productivity of a dean of students office at a time when state legislatures are demanding that institutions be more cost-effective and rely less on state support (Arnone, 2004).

Through improving the work experience of their professional staff members and increasing their professional staff members' willingness to exert extra effort, deans of students that employ a transformational leadership style can improve the student affairs program at their institutions. Bass and Avolio (1998) found that transformational leadership can be developed within individuals through a leadership development program they refer to as the "Full Range of Leadership Development." It is a comprehensive training program that works with participants in improving their leadership behavior profile and with dealing with the obstacles to changing their leadership behavior (Bass and Avolio, 1998). This type of leadership development program may assist deans of students in becoming more transformational in their leadership, which would improve the work experience of their professional staff members. Therefore, this type of leadership program could be developed for deans of students at public research institutions.

Recommendations for Future Research

The findings of this study support the existence of the basic theoretical prediction of Bass and Avolio's (1997) Full Range of Leadership model within the dean of students offices at public research universities. However, the study is not conclusive and suggests a number of areas for future research.

1. The current study was limited to deans of students at public research universities in the southeast. Before the findings can be generalized to the dean of students population as a whole, it is recommended that the study be duplicated with institutions in other Carnegie Classifications, with private institutions, and with institutions in other parts of the country.
2. A key to improving leadership effectiveness is identifying characteristics of subordinates, organizational environment, and work tasks that neutralize or enhance leadership behaviors (Kerr & Jermier, 1978). Therefore, it is

recommended that research be done on the characteristics of the student affairs work that may neutralize or enhance transformational leadership.

3. A comprehensive search of the literature revealed very limited studies on the leadership behavior of deans of students or on what type of leadership is effective within a dean of students office. Research to examine these areas could prove valuable to student affairs practitioners.
4. This study did not attempt to examine how perceptions differ between transformational and transactional deans of students. Future research could focus on what transformational deans and transactional deans believe they ought to be doing in differing circumstances.
5. Future research focusing on the relationship between transformational leadership and outcomes beyond those measured by the MLQ would be valuable. Included in this research could be a measure of job satisfaction.
6. Research suggest that transformational leadership can be learned (Bass & Avolio, 1998). Future research employing a pre-test and post-test design around a transformational leadership development program for deans of students could be helpful.

APPENDIX A
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL



Institutional Review Board

98A Psychology Bldg.
PO Box 112250
Gainesville, FL 32611-2250
Phone (352) 392-0433
Fax (352) 392-9234
E-mail: irb2@ufl.edu
<http://rgp.ufl.edu/irb/irb02>

TO: Mr. Richard A. Barth
155 Tigert Hall
Campus

FROM: C. Michael Levy, PhD, Chair *CML:dl*
University of Florida
Institutional Review Board 02

SUBJECT: **Approval of Protocol #2003-U-263**

TITLE: Leadership Behaviors Among Deans of Students at Public Research Universities in the Southeast

SPONSOR: Unfunded

I am pleased to advise you that the University of Florida Institutional Review Board has recommended approval of this protocol. Based on its review, the UFIRB determined that this research presents no more than minimal risk to participants. Given your protocol, it is essential that you obtain signed documentation of informed consent from each participant. Enclosed is the dated, IRB-approved informed consent to be used when recruiting participants for the research.

It is essential that each of your participants sign a copy of your approved informed consent that bears the IRB stamp and expiration date.

If you wish to make any changes to this protocol, including the need to increase the number of participants authorized, you must disclose your plans before you implement them so that the Board can assess their impact on your protocol. In addition, you must report to the Board any unexpected complications that affect your participants.

If you have not completed this protocol by 10-Mar-2004, please telephone our office (392-0433), and we will discuss the renewal process with you. It is important that you keep your Department Chair informed about the status of this research protocol.

CML:dl

APPENDIX B
MULTIFACTOR LEADESHIP QUESTIONNAIRE PERMISSION

MLQ Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Duplication Set

(Leader and Rater Forms, and scoring
for MLQ 5x-Short)

Permission to reproduce either leader or rater forms for
up to 150 copies in one year from date of purchase:
March 21, 2003

by Bernard Bass and Bruce Avolio

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APPENDIX C
INFORMATION LETTER FOR DEANS OF STUDENTS



UNIVERSITY OF
FLORIDA

Office of the Vice President
for Student Affairs

155 Tigert Hall
P.O. Box 113250
Gainesville, FL 32611-3250
(352) 392-1265

April 27, 2003

Dear:

I am a doctoral candidate in the Educational Leadership Program at the University of Florida conducting research to examine leadership behaviors among deans of students at public research universities in the southeast. Despite the important leadership role that deans of students fill, little is known about the leadership behaviors of deans of students as perceived by their professional staff members.

I am sending you this letter to inform you that staff members within your area of supervision will be contacted and asked to participate in the study. Their involvement, if they choose to participate, will consist of completing the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5x-Short), a demographic information sheet, and a consent form. I have attached a copy of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire for your review.

Your staff members' responses to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire will be kept in the strictest confidence and the results of the study will be reported in the aggregate so that no individual or institution can be identified.

If you have any questions about the research, please contact me at (352) 392-1265 or through e-mail at rbarth@ufl.edu. If you wish to speak to my advisor, Dr. Art Sandeen, he can be reached at (352) 392-2391 or through e-mail at sandeen@ufl.edu.

Sincerely,

Rick Barth
Doctoral Candidate
Interim Assoc. Vice President

Enclosure

APPENDIX D
INFORMATION LETTER FOR PARTICIPANTS



UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA

Office of the Vice President
for Student Affairs

155 Tigert Hall
PO Box 113250
Gainesville, FL 32611-3250
(352) 392-1265

May 12, 2003

Dear:

I am a fellow student affairs practitioner conducting research on the leadership behaviors of deans of students at public research universities in the southeast. I am seeking your participation in this study because your input regarding perceptions of the Dean of Students at your institution is extremely important to the results of this research. The information gathered will not only help complete my doctoral dissertation, but will also contribute useful information furthering research on leadership in student affairs.

Your responses to the enclosed questionnaire will be kept in the strictest confidence and results of the study will be reported in the aggregate so that no individual can be identified. There is an identification number on the questionnaire for mailing purposes, but your name will not be recorded on the questionnaire and any linkage between your name and the identification number will be kept secure.

After you have completed the demographic information sheet and both sides of the questionnaire please sign the consent form. It will only take you about 15 minutes to fill out this information. You can return the materials in the enclosed postage-paid reply envelope.

Thank you for taking the time to contribute to this research. If you have any questions regarding the study you can e-mail me at rbarth@ufl.edu or call me at (352) 392-1265.

Sincerely,

Rick Barth
Doctoral Candidate
Interim Associate Vice President
University of Florida

APPENDIX E
INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Consent Form

A study of leadership behaviors among deans of students at public research universities in the southeast is being conducted by a doctoral candidate in the Department of Educational Leadership, Policy, and Foundations at the University of Florida. The purpose of the study is to examine the leadership behaviors exhibited by deans of students at public research universities in the southeast using Bass and Avolio's "Full Range of Leadership" model.

Plans for Participation

Your participation will involve the completion of 1 questionnaire and a demographic information sheet. The questionnaire will be used to collect information on your perceptions pertaining to the leadership style of the supervisor of your office (Dean of Students, Dean of Student Life, Director of Student Life, etc.). Completion of the demographic information sheet and the questionnaire will require approximately 15 minutes of your time.

Voluntary Participation Confidentiality

Your participation in this study is voluntary and you may withdraw at any time. I foresee no risks or discomforts to you by involving yourself in this study. There is no direct benefit to you for participating in this study. Your responses to the questionnaire will be kept in the strictest confidence and the information gathered will be used for research purposes only. Your identity will be kept confidential to the extent provided by law. The results of the study will be reported in the aggregate so that no individual can be identified. All instruments will be coded by number and your name will not appear on the questionnaire or demographic information sheet.

Should you choose to participate, please sign below and return this form with the completed demographic information sheet and the completed questionnaire in the enclosed postage-paid reply envelope. You may withdraw your consent at any time without penalty.

Authorization: I, _____, have read the procedure described above. I voluntarily agree to participate in the procedure and I have received a copy of this description. I am aware that my responses will remain confidential and that I may decline to participate at any time.

Signature

Date

Further information may be obtained by contacting:

Rick Barth
339 NW 50th Blvd.
Gainesville, FL 32607
(H): 352-256-3147
(O): 352-392-1265
(Fax): 352-392-7301
E-Mail: rbarth1@mac.com

Any questions or concerns about your rights as a participant in this study can be directed to:
UF IRB Office
Box 112250
Gainesville, FL 32611-2250
(352) 392-0433

Supervisor Information:
Dr. Arthur Sandeen
Professor, Educational Leadership
200-E Norman Hall
PO Box 117049
Gainesville, FL 32611-7049
Phone: 392-2391 ext. 284

APPROVED FOR
IRB # 2003-04-263
Expires Through 3/10/04

APPENDIX F
DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PARTICIPANTS

Demographic Information

Directions: Please provide the information requested in the two sections below. Section 1 is requesting information on the supervisor for your office (Dean of Students, Dean of Student Life, Director of Student Life). Section 2 is requesting information on you. Please return this information sheet with the completed questionnaire and the signed consent form in the postage-paid reply envelope.

Section 1: The Dean of Students/Dean of Student Life/Director of Student Life you are rating:

Gender: ☐ Female ☐ Male

Approximate Age: ☐ 20's ☐ 30's ☐ 40's ☐ 50's ☐ 60's

Education Level: ☐ Bachelor's Degree ☐ Master's Degree ☐ JD ☐ Doctorate

Number of years in the current leadership position: _____

Section 2: Information on you:

Gender: ☐ Female ☐ Male

Approximate Age: ☐ 20's ☐ 30's ☐ 40's ☐ 50's ☐ 60's

Education Level: ☐ Bachelor's Degree ☐ Master's Degree ☐ JD ☐ Doctorate

Number of years in student affairs : _____

Number of years working with the current Dean/Director in his/her current position: _____

APPENDIX G
MULTIFACTOR LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE SAMPLE ITEMS

MULTIFACTOR LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE
SAMPLE ITEMS

Item Number

- | | | |
|-----|--|-----------|
| 9. | Talks optimistically about the future
(Inspirational Motivation / Transformational) | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 15. | Spends time teaching and coaching
(Individualized Consideration / Transformational) | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 24. | Keeps track of all mistakes
(Management-by-Exception Active / Transactional) | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 38. | Gets me to do more than I expected to do
(Extra Effort / Outcomes) | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 45. | Leads a group that is effective
(Effectiveness / Outcomes) | 0 1 2 3 4 |

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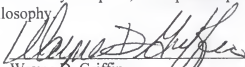
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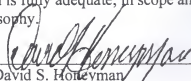
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